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ABSTRACT

The paper examines the uniqueness of gifted children and the problems facing them and their families as a result of the giftedness. Annotations from the literature are preceded by selected quotations from gifted children designed to reflect the research and expert opinions which follow. The first section considers the complex nature of giftedness and discusses the lack of agreement concerning definitions and identification. Section two reviews the special attitudes, behaviors, and needs characteristic of gifted and talented children and the multitude of problems which can result if these are ignored or mishandled. The final section describes specific approaches and programs designed to help children with problems characteristic of giftedness, such as uneven development, alienation, and perfectionism. (CL)

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The Dark Side of Giftedness

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Submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the course S591 - Exit Project
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A GIFT FOR ALL

by Arden G. Thompson

If you see
things bright,
clear-cut and new
like after rain
or when there's
no mote
to obscure
the view,
don't hide.

It doesn't mean
anything
is wrong
with you,
only that you've
been entrusted
with a gift
for all:
a different
point of view.

NOT MY SIZE

by Arden G. Thompson

Please don't
make me climb
into a box
of your-size-
view-of-me.
Let limitations
be my own,
not ones
imposed on me;
and let the corners
be sky blue,
not dingy
cardboard brown,
and let me run
and play
upon the peaks
alone
if playmates
can't be found.
I'll bring
you all back
sunbeams,
and great armfuls
of joy -
only, please
don't make me
climb
into your box:
it's really
not
my size.

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A PERSON, A PENCIL, A PROMISE

by Sarah

Once on yellow paper with green lines he wrote a poem... and he called it *Spot* because that was the name of his dog and that's what the poem was all about. His teacher gave him an "A" and a gold star and his mother pinned it to the kitchen wall and showed his aunt. That was the year his sister was born and his parents kissed all the time. The little girl around the corner sent him a postcard signed with a row of x's and his father tucked him into bed every night and was always there.

Then on white paper with blue lines he tried another poem. This poem he called *Autumn*. The reason he called it *Autumn* is because that's what season it was. His teacher gave him an "A" and told him to write more clearly. His mother told him not to hang it on the wall because it had just been painted. That was the year his sister got glasses, and his parents never kissed any more and the little girl around the corner laughed when he fell off his bike. His father got mad when he asked him to tuck him in bed.

On a piece of paper torn from his note book he tried another poem. This he called ? because that was his big concern. His professor gave him an "A" and a long searching look. His mother never said anything at all because he never showed it to her. That was the year that he caught his sister necking on the back porch and the little girl around the corner wore too much make-up so that he laughed at her when he saw her. He tucked himself in bed at three in the morning with his father snoring loudly in the next room.

On the back of a match book he tried another poem and called it *Absolutely Nothing* because that is what it was about. He gave himself an "A" and a slash on each wrist and hung it on the bathroom wall because he couldn't make it to the kitchen.

GENIUS?

by Dave

In a world full of different kinds of people. . . he is alone. He goes ignored although he stands out in a crowd. Silently he ambles through the corridor, his imagination is his only companion. People brush past him without even noticing him. "And look at them," he thinks to himself, "Conversing and laughing with each other, and I walk alone, isolated from the crowd."

Longing for a friend is this man, though hardly a man at sixteen. Yet his mind is that of a man, one who could someday make startling new discoveries, or be a famous inventor. Yes, his mind is that of an Einstein, but his vocabulary is one of merely a child. His lack of communicative ability makes his personality and intelligence a mystery. The true giftedness and potential that this man possesses is lost forever only because he cannot transmit his thoughts through words. This man must be helped before he becomes just another face in a crowd. Too many excellent minds have already been wasted because of emotional and physical disorders.

He sits alone. . . thinking.

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Alone

by Patricia D. Fero

She squatted, eyes scouring the ground for lost treasure. A button, a bit of glass and stones carefully chosen, slipped safely into her yellow zippered pockets. She dreamed of finding a diamond, a perfectly beautiful diamond. But then, remembering that such stones are found only in special places far away, her thoughts darted elsewhere. Today she would look for an arrowhead. Now that was possible. Archeologists, old bones and stones, maybe today, she hoped. Her search continued with intense concentration until the trance was broken by the sound of a school bell. Immediately, she took her place in line and the children began to file into the building.

Mrs. Herbert stood outside the classroom door watching the children in their daily routine of taking off coats, closing lockers (gently), and getting settled into the assigned desk. Rachel was last, as usual, and the teacher sighed audibly, "What to do about this one. So nervous, so insecure and certainly a dreamer."

Rachel unzipped her jacket and, after placing it on the hook inside her locker, she gently shut the grey metal door and walked into Room 120. Her desk was in the back near a long row of windows and this pleased her although she now had to glance cautiously rather than stare blatantly as a result of being caught daydreaming.

Today is March 16.
It will be warm today.
Art is at 10:30 a.m.
Gym is at 1:35 p.m.

She knew the routine. Attendance first, say the pledge of allegiance and then read the sentences on the board.

Five worksheets and one reading group later, the morning recess began. Two oblong circles, a sad face and two smiley faces made her feel grouchy again today. She had to rewrite her story about George Washington three times. "My hands are a dumbbell," she concluded. "And art is coming, oh no!" Rachel thought that her pictures were good enough for Mom and Dad and everyone else, but not so good as everyone else's, so they were dumb, too. She felt her stomach tighten and the old feeling of not quite throwing up returned.

Recess brought fantasies of a tyrannosaurus rex storming the playground in search of little children to eat and it also brought a real treasure found at the edge of the playground — almost off limits. Why, it looked like bacon - a crinkled brown side with a dark line down the middle. She knew it was one of a kind, this stone, and after turning it carefully with small fingers, she placed it gently into the pocket. (She smiled and wished that she was riding home.)

The bell rang and within a few minutes all the students had resumed their positions. Art came and went. Rachel decided that waiting for it to come was worse than actually being there and now that it was over, her tummy felt better.

"First graders, get out your tablets because there is going to be a spelling test."

Rachel loved spelling tests and never took the words home to study. She could spell words like *whale* and *diamond* but no one ever asked her. Today's words were easy. *Over* was the first one and she quickly wrote the letters. Her mind began to drift back to the bacon stone. It was so beautiful and she liked its sandy feel rubbing against her fingers. What was it made of, she wondered, and how did it get on the playground?

As she watched that knitted look transform Mrs. Herbert's face, Rachel decided that it was time to get back to work. The spelling test was over and she knew that the letters were right and now . . . reciprocating the teacher's disgruntled look, Rachel's face became a model of concentration. . . .

Her blonde head tilted upward, her eyes gaped open and then - a soft moan, air pushing over sound. She screamed, snapped out of her seat and started for the door. The pocket wasn't zipped! She hadn't zipped the yellow pocket on her jacket and the bacon stone that crinkled in the sun - it could have fallen out.

Mrs. Herbert, shocked by this abrupt outburst, intercepted and held the child firmly. They shuddered together as a thin voice whispered, "My bacon stone, alone. . . . It's the only one. The yellow zipper is open and it might be gone." Suppressing tears, the teacher swallowed hard and turned to leave the room. "Stay here Rachel," she said softly. Mrs. Herbert knew that the treasure would be where it had been placed and so it was. Rachel was a cautious child and yet this time she had slipped.

Once retrieved, the stone was clutched into the small hand. It was too late. Rachel knew what she had done and there was no turning back. She cried and the teacher rocked her gently on a small plastic seated chair while the other children watched intently, quietly. They, too, understood the significance of what had occurred. Rachel was different and she had never before spoken so much as one word.

These are my feelings on being gifted:

A Afraid that at some point in time I'll slip and do something wrong and everyone will notice.

G Guilty, when pressured into not doing my best.
I Isolated, when others make me feel left out of "the group."
F Frustrated, when I do something great and everyone laughs.
T Terrified, when I don't know the answer and everyone stares at me.
E Excited, when I create something that everyone appreciates.
D Disgusted, that my special needs are neglected.

P Privileged, when I get extra time during school to do something for myself.
E Embarrassed, when the teacher announces my grades.
R Relieved, when people don't laugh at me for getting less than 100%.
S Satisfied, when I am able to help someone else with something they don't understand.
O On top of the world, when somebody says they enjoyed my work.
N Nervous, when pressured to always be the best.

Girl, 12, Pennsylvania

(Delisle 1984: 113)

Introduction

The gifted speak eloquently of the joys and burdens of giftedness. They express its uniqueness and complexity. They are special children. Some gifted children experience " . . . good social adjustment, emotional maturity, and healthy self-concepts . . . " (Roedell: 127) but as Sebring (97) noted, there are an "alarming number who appear emotionally disturbed or socially maladjusted." Concern needs to be focused on these gifted youngsters who are deprived of an enjoyable, productive life due to their giftedness.

Several myths surrounding the gifted should be exposed initially so the significant issues relevant to the problems of the gifted can be clearly examined. Lyon and Webb, Meckstroth, and Tolan represent just several authors who confronted the idea that the gifted and talented can make it on their own; they need no special help. The reality is their success is not guaranteed. Educationally, just as the below average have a difficult time "keeping up" with a class of regular students so the above average have "trouble staying behind" (Lyon: 18). Lack of attention to their educational and emotional needs creates developmental problems. Usually as the degree of ability increases so does the degree of maladjustment and unhappiness (Roedell: 127). Conversely, Marland, noted the positive correlation between appropriate educational opportunities and well-adjusted gifted children (II-2).

The question of appropriate educational opportunities suggests another damaging myth: gifted education is an elitist and

racist concept and is inappropriate in our egalitarian society (Lyon: 19). Underrepresentation of minorities has been a concern and efforts have been directed toward rectifying this inequity (Yancey 1983, Gore: 32, Lyon: 19, and Renzulli: 517). The larger issue of elitism has created the greater controversy. Marland (III-1) pointed to the dual interpretation inherent in the argument.

> If democratic educational practice is interpreted as the same education for all, then special provisions for the gifted are undemocratic. If we believe that democratic education means appropriate educational opportunities and the right to education in keeping with one's ability to benefit, then special programs are not undemocratic.

Fehrle (5) and Ward (77) support the view that democratic principles appreciate the importance of the individual and opportunities to develop his or her potential to the fullest. Miano stated it most persuasively.

> Our ideals of freedom and equality could be fostered in our schools by creating an environment of acceptance for all levels of intelligence in such a way that extremes are not considered freakish. Expertise in and out of the school setting in conjunction with special programs can help to nurture the concept that normal achievement means reaching individual maximum achievement rather than the concept that normal achievement is average achievement.

Philosophical justification for adequate educational opportunities must expand to widespread acceptance and practical implementation.

Also detrimental but not mythical is the fact that nationally,

the gifted are at the mercy of political and economical expediency. The Soviets' launch of Sputnik in 1957 elevated gifted education to top priority but civil rights concerns in the 1960's usurped the attention and funds (Lyon: 16). Unfortunately for the children, gifted education is viewed as expendable. The gifted are equally vulnerable within their own school districts. In the School Staffing Survey of the Marland report 57% of the schools claimed they had no gifted students (III-9). Gifted children were unquestionably being overlooked or purposely ignored. The Marland report in the early 1970's and the Nation at Risk in this decade have brought gifted education once again to the surface. The duration of this renewed interest and resulting gains for gifted education are unpredictable.

The gifted and their special needs cannot afford to be neglected, no matter what the reason. A commitment must be made to these children, not short-term based upon a commissioner's report, but long-term based upon care and concern for their successful development. Two popular stereotypes of the gifted are the "unbearable smart-aleck" and the "withdrawn 'nerd'" who has no friends and studies constantly (Carter: 35). Regrettably, these labels are accurate for some gifted who lack the understanding of those around them. Dispelling myths, heightening awareness, and developing an understanding of the special needs, vulnerabilities, and problems of the gifted are imperative. It is the first stage in eliminating these stereotypes and helping these unique children accept their giftedness and use it happily and productively.

Statement of the Problem

The problems which giftedness creates for the gifted children, their families, and the school must be confronted and dealt with effectively.

Purpose of the Study

The widely accepted myth that gifted children are capable and require no special help must be dispelled. These children have unique needs and attitudes which are often ignored or ineffectively handled. Too often the gifted child fails within the system. When success is experienced, it is frequently at great emotional expense. If these special children are to be emotionally healthy and free to develop their talents, it is essential that those people working with them develop an awareness and understanding of their uniqueness. This knowledge can then be used to create the necessary support systems and help the gifted students better understand themselves, appreciate their talents, battle the problems that arise, and find their place in a world seemingly designed for the average.

Organization of the Study

The first section of the study deals with the complexity of giftedness. The lack of agreement on definitions and the multiple identification procedures create an initial series of problems for the gifted.

The second section examines the special attitudes, behaviors, and needs characteristic of gifted and talented children and the multitude of problems which can result if these are ignored or mishandled.

The final section reviews specific approaches and programs which are designed to help those involved avoid the problems created by giftedness and assist those who are experiencing its dark side.

Each section of annotations is preceded by selected quotations from gifted children. These thoughts reflect the research and expert opinions which follow. All quotes were taken from Gifted Children Speak Out by James R. Delisle, 1984. After each quote I have included the page number on which it is found.

Annotations

Gifted Children Speak Out On.....

Definitions and Identification

I think being gifted must mean being especially good in the arts as well as in the academic field. Some kids think that it just means being in an academically talented program, but a girl in my class with an I.Q. of 128 who is very good in art is automatically "not gifted" because you need an I.Q. of 130 to be in our gifted program. That's dumb.

Boy, 10, Connecticut: 4-5

I think it means being smart, having a wonderful imagination, and being different.

Girl, 12, Arkansas: 5

Gifted is something that is hard to put down in print on paper. It is "definitely not" in my mind someone who is just a straight "A" student, though that might be one of the criteria. You must have that extra bit more of motivation that most kids don't have. You must be able to grasp complicated concepts and ideas easily and you must be responsible. Giftedness may not be something you always cherish, for it's a burden in many ways. But being gifted, I find I have that urge to learn.

Boy, 12, Michigan: 6

I know what the word gifted means, but from my point of view, I think most of the time it's used wrong. People tend to

use the word gifted to describe a person good in school. Gifted <u>really</u> describes a person who is exceptionally good in anything, whether it's running or piano playing or reading. Everyone is gifted in some way.

Girl, 10, Indiana: 4

Yes, I am gifted because my mind can store mathematical facts.

Boy, 9, Georgia: 6

In my class I'm at the top, but I know that there are people who are in other schools who may be a lot smarter than me.

Boy, 11, West Germany: 8

When I was in first grade I had a series of tests that other children didn't take. My scores were sent home one day and my mother showed me my I.Q. and told me my scores and that I would be in a special class because I was smart.

Boy, 11, Georgia: 10

I found out I was gifted in third grade. I always finished my work and would disturb others because I had nothing to do.

Girl, 12, North Carolina: 11

In third grade, I was in school on a Tuesday afternoon and my teacher called me into the hall and broke it to me easy.

Boy, 11, Georgia: 10

I know that I'm smarter than some kids in some fields—such as theater (when "they" say every word the same way) and creative writing (when every other word of theirs is something like "big" or "nice") but I also know that in science there are many far ahead of me, and when it comes to physical education, I'm lost!

Girl, 11, New York: 8

Getzels, J.W., and P.W. Jackson. "The Meaning of 'Giftedness'—An Examination of an Expanding Concept." Phi Delta Kappan 40.2 (November 1958): 75-77.

Historically, giftedness was defined as a score on an intelligence test. This singular determinant of giftedness ignored other forms of intelligence, limited attempts to identify and encourage creative abilities, and failed to recognize the "variations in the value placed upon giftedness." A University of Chicago research project supplied data to support the need for an expanded concept of giftedness. Approximately 500 students in grades 6-12 constituted the sample population. "Highly intelligent" students from the top 20% in I.Q. but not in creativity were compared with "highly creative" stduents who tested in the top 20% on measures of creativity but not in I.Q. Results revealed the groups equally superior in school achievement yet teachers showed a preference for the high I.Q. students. The "intelligent" ranked good grades, I.Q., and goal directedness as important, whereas the "creatives" favored a wide range of interests, emotional stability, and a sense of humor. Also, the high I.Q. group was more success oriented and held a self-ideal which reflected a model envisioned as teacher-approved, unlike the creatives. The study justified the need to redefine giftedness.

Guilford, J.P. "Three Faces of Intellect." American Psychologist 14 (August 1959): 469-479.

Guilford analyzed the components of human intelligence within a system called the "structure of the intellect." Each component or factor represented a unique ability necessary to perform a "class of tasks." Although distinctive, the factors were classified according to operations, content, and products. Operations included the factors of cognition, memory, convergent thinking, divergent thinking, and evaluation. Content classification involved figural, symbolic, and semantic material. Content and operation combined to produce the third classification, products: units, classes, relations, systems, transformations, and implications. A cubical model represented the structure, enabling each ability to be described in terms of operation, content, and product and measured through testing. The cells in the theoretical model represented a potential of more than 120 distinct intellectual abilities. Fifty factors were identified, indicating fifty diverse types of intelligence, and hope existed that more gaps would be filled. Guilford stated his model would probably be modified if the form survived but insisted the multidimensional concept of intellect was firmly established.

Marland, S.P. Jr. Education of the Gifted and Talented. Report of Commissioner of Education Pursuant to Public Law 91-230 Section 806. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1971.

In compliance with Public Law 91-230 mandating a status report on education of the gifted and talented, the Commissioner of Education was to define "gifted and talented." The advisory panel established the following definition. "Gifted and talented children are those identified by professionally qualified persons who by virtue of outstanding abilities, are capable of high performance. These are children who require differentiated educational programs and/or services beyond those normally provided by the regular school program in order to realize their contribution to self and society" (I-3). High performance included achievement and/or potential ability in the following categories, singly or in combination: general intellectual ability, specific academic aptitude, creative or productive thinking, leadership ability, visual and performing arts, and psychomotor ability. A minimum of 3 to 5 percent of school age children was expected to be identified using these criteria.

Webb, James T., Elizabeth A. Meckstroth, and Stephanie A. Tolan. "We Don't Have a Problem Here!...Or Do We?" Guiding the Gifted Child Columbus, Ohio: Ohio Psychology Publishing Co., 1982.

This study defined gifted as those having mental abilities in the upper 2½ to 3 percent of the general population as measured by intelligence tests. An I.Q. score of 130 was noted as the typical delineation although 125 was sometimes utilized if other indications of talent existed. Scores of 145-160 were the highest capable of measurement on most tests, but estimates were possible beyond that with some as high as 180 and 200. Also designated were the degrees of giftedness, classified according to I.Q.: 120 to 129, superior to gifted; 130-139, gifted to highly gifted; 140-160, exceptionally gifted; and over 160, genius. The diversity of the gifted population was illustrated by the 70 point range in I.Q. scores, especially impressive when compared to the 45 point spread between borderline mentally retarded (I.Q. of 85) and very superior. The author did remind the reader that I.Q. scores represented only one method of identification, and scores could vary from one test to another by five to as many as twenty I.Q. points.

Passow, A. Harry. "The Nature of Giftedness and Talent." Gifted Child Quarterly 25 (1981): 5-9.

Passow focused on the complexity of giftedness, a concept which started evolving in 1868. He traced the work of numerous researchers from 1868 and reported their conclusions on the nature of giftedness. The initial definition of "individuals with high intelligence quotients" expanded to include persons of outstanding abilities capable of high performance in any of these areas: general intellectual ability, specific academic aptitude, creative or productive thinking, leadership ability, and visual and performing arts. (5) There had been and continued to be disagreement regarding giftedness, proper identification procedures, and the appropriate educational programs. Seemingly for every answered question concerning giftedness there were numerous unanswered. Passow noted it was known that the gifted were not a homogeneous group. Each was an individual with unique abilities and needs. Educating the gifted and meeting their needs presented an incredible challenge, one the author stated relied upon the "conception of the nature of giftedness and talent." (9)

Juntune, Joyce. "Myth: The Gifted Constitutes A Single Homogeneous Group!" Gifted Child Quarterly 26.1 (Winter 1982): 9-10.

Juntune emphasized the vast differences among the gifted. Although reliance on intelligence test scores to define giftedness perpetuated the concept of homogeneity, recent research altered this perspective. The government definition of giftedness supported this multiplicity by listing five broad ability areas which could reveal giftedness. Juntune further noted environmental, social, emotional, and intellectual variables that accounted for wide diversity among the gifted. She verified her observations by selecting a group of third grade students all within five points on the Stanford Binet and with the same percentile rank on a group achievement test. Each was then tested with Meekers Learning Abilities Test and the Multiple Talents Test. Results were graphed and all were different. Each student was found to be an individual, not a member of a homogeneous group.

"Gifted and Talented." Psychology Today. June 1984, 19.

This cursory overview of the identification and education of the gifted and talented noted the early attempts of the Chinese in 2200 B.C. to locate competent people to fill powerful government positions. Their examinations were searching for diverse talents, recognizing the multidimensional talents of man. The approach in the United States has reflected a narrower scope, concentrating mainly on those with superior mathematical and linguistic abilities. Financial considerations and cultural differences limited further the number of gifted identified and provided special education. It was observed that schools have historically offered only two modifications to the regular school program to accommodate the gifted, acceleration and various grouping techniques. The establishment of a multiple-tracking program in Elizabeth, New Jersey, in 1866 was probably the first. Since that time support for the gifted has "fluctuated widely in response to shifting political, social, and economic conditions." It was noted at the time of the writing that almost every state had some form of program and the financial commitment was $180 million compared to $50 million yearly in the 1970's.

Pegnano, Carl E., and Jack W. Birch. "Locating Gifted Children in Junior High Schools: A Comparison of Methods." Exceptional Children 25 (March 1959): 300-304.

Conducted at a large school in Pittsburgh, this study tested the efficiency and effectiveness of seven means of identifying gifted children in junior high. Mental giftedness was defined as an I.Q. of 136 or higher on the Stanford Binet test. The cumulative list recommended 781 students, half of the junior high population, for individual testing by a psychologist. Of the total number referred, 91 were found to have I.Q.s of 136 or higher. Results revealed teacher judgment and mathematical superiority were neither effective nor efficient. Approximately half of the gifted were missing from both lists. Creativity and student government membership proved the least viable methods. Group intelligence tests had the best combination of effectiveness and efficiency but as a screening device only. Cutoff for the study was an I.Q. of 115 which resulted in 92.3% effectiveness. If 130 had been the cutoff, only 21.9% of the gifted would have been located. The most accurate identification method was found to be the individual intelligence test, a method both costly and time consuming.

Renzulli, Joseph S., and Linda H. Smith. "Two Approaches to Identification of Gifted Students." Exceptional Children 43 (May 1977): 512-518.

The broadened concept of giftedness called into question the use of the individual intelligence test as the primary criterion measure to judge the effectiveness and efficiency of alternative identification procedures. For this study the traditional approach, using group ability tests as a screen and followed by the individual intelligence test, was compared with the case study approach. Seven districts instituting gifted programs provided the data. Three districts used the traditional approach while the other four used case studies for identification. The information gathered in the case studies included aptitude and/or achievement test scores, ratings by teachers, past performance, parent ratings, and student self-ratings. Results favored the case study approach based upon the utilization of multiple sources, the variety and usefulness of gathered information, the identification of gifted minority students, and reasonable time and cost factors. Also significant was the judgment by teachers in the gifted programs that 92% of the students were properly placed using the case study approach contrasted with 79% deemed properly placed using the traditional methods.

Fox, L.H. "Identification of the Academically Gifted." American Psychologist 36.10 (1981): 1103-1111.

Fox reviewed the evolving and conflicting definitions of giftedness and the various methods utilized to identify gifted students. The author examined the procedures, noting their limitations. Fox recommended a concept introduced by Julian C. Stanley. His premise keyed on children who displayed talent in specific academic areas. Fox reasoned if identification of the gifted was to develop challenging educational programs for them, knowledge of specific abilities was essential. Advanced tests in specific subject areas administered to the students located the high performers and provided information regarding their special abilities. Individual intelligence tests failed to make those distinctions. Group intelligence tests, creativity tests, and teacher judgments were also found lacking. Fox advised the best approach for identification of the gifted used a variety of the procedures for initial screening, but final identification and placement in programs were made by experts using diagnostic testing, Stanley's method, supplemented by interviews and evaluation of student products.

Thomas, George I., and Joseph Crescimbeni. "The Problem of *Non-Recognition.*" *Guiding the Gifted Child*. New York: Random House, 1966.

The waste of talent resulting from non-recognition was Thomas and Crescimbeni's focus of concern. The authors emphasized the need for teachers to be able to recognize potential giftedness, especially since the expanded concept of giftedness encompassed greater numbers of students. Traditionally, teachers have been ineffective in this area. When asked to identify gifted students, they tended to select average pupils with good work habits. Numerous reasons were suggested for this failure to accurately identify the gifted. Teacher prejudices and stereotypes hindered identification. Poor readers, disadvantaged or minority students, and disciplinary problems were overlooked when searching for gifted. Incomplete cumulative records and meaningless test data made pupil assessment ineffective. Also, overemphasis on teacher marks and a single I.Q. test score proved detrimental. Social immaturity and pupil mobility were also mentioned as "holes in the identification net." To ensure more accurate recognition, help in establishing criteria for making judgments was recommended.

Renzulli, Joseph S., Robert K. Hartman, and Carolyn M. Callahan. "Scale for Rating the Behavioral Characteristics of Superior Students." In Psychology and Education of the Gifted. Ed. William B. Barbe and Joseph S. Renzulli. New York: Irvington Publishers, Inc., 1975, 264-273.

The expanded definition of giftedness increased the importance of teacher judgment in the identification process. The consistent ineffectiveness of this method indicated the need for a supplementary objective rating device to assist in guiding the teachers. The Scale for Rating Behavioral Characteristics of Superior Students (SRBCSS) was developed for that purpose. After an extensive review of research studies to identify "observable behavioral characteristics" of able students, the authors compiled the scale. Characteristics cited as important in at least three studies were included on the rating scale. It was field tested and revisions were then made based upon teacher, counselor, and program personnel feedback. Recommendations for use of the scale included separate analysis of the four sections on the scale, application of the test early in the year for optimum benefit, and ratings from several teachers on the same student. Finally, the authors advised utilization of the scale as one part of a comprehensive identification procedure. Results from the scale should then be applied to the program development, matching student strengths with learning experiences.

Gowan, John C. "Identification—Responsibility of Both Principal and Teacher." In Psychology and Education of the Gifted. Ed. William B. Barbe and Joseph S. Renzulli. New York: Irvington Publishers, Inc., 1975, 280-281.

Gowan outlined an identification program which proved reasonably effective and efficient, provided multiple criteria for selection, and was flexible enough to allow for special situations. The procedure started with a target percentage of students. Group test screening located five times the target number, placing the top tenth of that group into the gifted program immediately. The remainder were put into a "reservoir." Additions were made to the "reservoir" through achievement tests and nominations by teachers, principal, the curriculum staff, and guidance staff. Best leadership ability, best representative of minority group, able student with reading difficulties, most popular, and most creative were just a few of the diverse criteria. The "reservoir" students were then ranked and all with three mentions entered the program. Those with two were given individual Binet tests. Some scores below the cutoff were accepted if circumstances warranted special consideration. The author acknowledged larger numbers were admitted to the programs but reminded the reader it would be far better to later remove a student improperly placed than omit one that belonged.

Treffinger, Donald J., Joseph S. Renzulli, and John F. Feldhusen. "Problems in the Assessment of Creative Thinking." In Psychology and Education of the Gifted. Ed. William B. Barbe and Joseph S. Renzulli. New York: Irvington Publishers, Inc., 1975, 240-247.

These authors identified two significant factors which made the assessment of creativity difficult, the lack of theoretical unity and the need to establish reliable criteria by which to judge creativity. Specific problems created by the absence of an accepted theory included the difficulty in establishment of an operational definition, inability to understand the differences among various tests and the relationship of creativity to other abilities. The second major problem area involved both internal and external criteria. In addition to the challenge of constructing valid tests for so complex a process as creative thinking, the authors also focused on the questionable external criteria, including teacher judgment, peer judgment, and characteristic lists compiled from studies of creative adults. Other concerns mentioned included the appropriateness of the creative task for the examinee and the relevance of tested creative behavior in the real world. The authors emphasized the importance of continued research on creativity and its assessment.

Gifted Children Speak Out On.....

Vulnerabilities and Problems

I feel the grades I get are O.K. unless I get an A- or under.

Boy, 9, Rhode Island: 40

I love the A's and the first time I got a B, I cried. But I only got one. No more of those B's.

Girl, 11, Connecticut: 40

Sometimes I wish I didn't get all A's. First, because everyone makes fun of me and second, because it shows that I'm not really being challenged. I don't do as much as I could, but I get straight A's anyway.

Girl, 12, Pennsylvania: 41

Others expect me to act more grown up, not playing games once in a while but studying every second.

Girl, 10, Connecticut: 43

My teacher feels I should get A's or B's, and when I get a C, I can see she is disappointed, and my mother and father think I should do better in school if I get a B.

Boy, 12, New Jersey: 44

Sometimes I feel pressured into being always better than

average. Every once in a while I just want to be below average.

Girl, 12, Kansas: 42

I try to hide my abilities so my friend Herman won't think I'm a show-off. And I don't like not being liked. And I am not a show-off.

Boy, 9, Alaska: 33

Sometimes I don't feel like I fit in so I hide that I am gifted.

Boy, 10, Kentucky: 33

Sometimes we'll do an easy thing and I'll take my time to look like I'm just as puzzled as everyone else.

Girl, 9, Illinois: 33

On the days I have my gifted program, Martha isn't my friend. On other days she likes me.

Girl, 8, Pennsylvania: 28

I used to think (and sometimes still do think) that my ideas are weird. My friends don't have ideas, well, as deep as mine.

Girl, 11, Louisiana: 13

I was in math class last December. Our teacher had given us a long-term assignment and a week to do it in. I finished it on the first day. On the third day I started to get restless,

so after counting the math problems left in the chapter, the pages in the chapter, the chapters in the book, and the pages I had already done, I was bored! As a last resort I passed a note saying "If you don't drop your book at 1:54 you are a purple cow." 1:54 came and everyone dropped their books . . . the teacher screamed "Who's responsible for this?" and the class, glad to get off the hook, said my name. I got into the trouble I justly deserved.

I've found only one solution to boredom. Instead of rushing through work, take your time. Do something for extra credit. Then you won't get bored and the teacher won't assign you busy work.

Girl, 12, Connecticut: 82

I feel sometimes in school that I am playing a game with my teacher—that she is always trying to catch me off guard and that she wants to try to show off my faults. Whenever she plays this game, she always gets mad when I answer correct.

Girl, 12, Connecticut: 76

The teachers often have me do extra things, like move desks or go get their coffee. I think it is indirectly a result of being smart, because I finish my homework first and am sitting there while the others are still writing.

Boy, 12, Ohio: 76

When my mom or dad say I do well, I feel proud. But when

my sister is in the room, I feel sad because no one says anything to her.

Girl, 8, Ohio: 86

Delisle, James R. Gifted Children Speak Out. New York: Walker and Company, 1984.

Delisle's book presented a collection of children's opinions on the rewards and burdens of being gifted. Survey forms were placed in the publications and newsletters targeted for the gifted, their parents, and teachers. Over an 11 month period the author received responses to his questionnaires from over 6,000 children ages 5 to 13. Representative responses comprised the first section of the book. The eight chapter titles included: Defining Giftedness, Getting Along with Friends and Classmates, Expectations: Yours and Others', Schools that Work, When Schools Fail, Parents: A Helping Hand from Home, and Future Goals Future Quests. The second section contained activities and discussion questions intended for adult use with gifted children. In reviewing comments in Part I it was stressed that within this book of opinions invaluable guidance was provided for teaching and raising a gifted child "by the experts in their field, the gifted themselves . . . ."

Ritter, Malcolm. "Parents of Gifted Children Voice Beefs, Not Boasts." The South Bend Tribune 25 November 1984, 17.

Ritter focused on the disturbing affects giftedness had on a child. Researchers and counselors were seeing depression, destructive perfectionism, underachievement, and instances of dropping out and suicide. Jim Webb of Wright State University's School of Professional Psychology believed that half of gifted children experienced emotional problems due to their talents. The problems which resulted were as varied as the individual child. Boredom often resulted in misbehavior. The desire for peer acceptance manifested itself in underachievement, and the inability to achieve perfection could tragically end in suicide. Webb felt these children could be helped and the problems avoided through early identification, parental support, and appropriate gifted programs.

Culbertson, Susan. "How Does It Feel to be Gifted?" G/C/T, May/June 1984, 47-49.

This author worked with gifted secondary students and stressed that an understanding of the students' affective needs was essential for their successful intellectual development. Culbertson's small group sessions with these students elicited revealing responses to the question "How does it feel to be gifted?" She categorized these emotional responses into five groups: how wonderful, of course, wrong person, social oddity, and not worthy. Each group had unique problems which affected self-image and social status. Those working with the gifted must appreciate these varied feelings and potential problems. Being gifted meant being different to these students and the adolescents felt the peer pressure to conform.

Manaster, Guy J., and Philip M. Powell. "A Framework for Understanding Gifted Adolescents' Psychological Maladjustment." Roeper Review 6.2 (Nov. 1983): 70-73.

This article provided a framework for understanding the problems which were recognized as more probable for gifted adolescents. The concept was based upon the assumption that all people want to fit into society and understand where they stand. Due to the uncertain and shifting roles during this critical stage, adolescents encouraged sameness to ensure acceptance. Because the gifted were perceived by others and themselves as different, they became vulnerable to various psychological problems. Boredom, perfectionism, and pressure for success were noted among the problems related to cognitive and developmental differences, a condition referred to as "out of stage." "Out of phase" adolescents were described as having special interests and abilities, making it difficult to fit in socially. Those students who perceived themselves as different and their problems as personal weakness became "out of sync" with themselves and their environment, causing self-concept problems, insecurity, and anxiety. The authors recommended viewing gifted "as average with gifts, not as superior with faults" (73). (See Appendix B).

Gallagher, J.J., and Thora Crowder. "The Adjustment of Gifted Children in the Regular Classroom." Exceptional Children 23 (1957): 306-312, 317-319.

This study attempted to determine the extent of adjustment problems gifted children experienced in a regular classroom. Subjects for the study were 35 children with an I.Q. of 150 in grades second through fifth in a midwestern college town. After an extensive battery of tests and interviews, case conferences were conducted for each child to identify any intellectual, academic, social, or emotional problems. Results revealed a number of extreme individual differences which could not be ignored, making generalizations difficult. Of the total sample, 29% appeared to be adjusting adequately while a relatively few were having serious problems. The areas where the children displayed the greatest difficulties were minor adjustment problems (49%), motivation (40%), and intellectual inflexibility or lack of creativity (26%). The authors' findings pointed repeatedly to the variety of individual differences, however they did note the problems were primarily ones of omission. The significant statistics for motivation and creativity problems indicated the probability of an incredible waste of ability. Information gained through the study was to be used to develop curriculum adjustments in the regular classroom.

Roedell, Wendy C. "Vulnerabilities of Highly Gifted Children." Roeper Review 6.3 (Feb. 1984): 127-30.

Roedell acknowledged the existence of many successful, well-adjusted gifted children but reminded the reader that success was not a guarantee. The author stressed the vulnerabilities and potential problems faced by the gifted, especially the highly gifted. Distinctions were made between the moderately and highly gifted, and various definitions used to categorize them were reviewed. Regardless of the measures, cut-offs, or criteria, the students with unusually advanced intellectual abilities were designated extremely susceptible in several areas. This article examined the problems of uneven development, perfectionism, adult expectations, intense sensitivity, self-definition, alienation, inappropriate environments, and role conflict. Roedell concluded with the observation that most of the problems experienced by these most able children stemmed from "the discrepancy between their level of development and the expectations of society" (130). Greater awareness and environmental support systems were noted as essentials to assist these special children cope with their abilities.

Powell, Philip M. and Tony Haden. "The Intellectual and Psychosocial Nature of Extreme Giftedness." Roeper Review 6 (Feb. 1984): 131-133.

The highly gifted (I.Q. of 150+), relatively rare in the population with only 5-7 out of 10,000, were compared with the moderately gifted and average. The highly gifted were found to possess independence of thought, have the greatest need to know and generate ideas, enabling them to create structure. They also exhibited highly superior problem-solving strategies. The capacity to create structure was found to be directed toward understanding of self as well as utilized for the external organization of information. This led to "the development of an overly demanding ideal self." This unattainable ideal invariably resulted in low self-esteem and poor self-concept. Also, the failure of parents, peers, and teachers to sufficiently understand the highly gifted made consistent, valid feedback difficult to acquire, further damaging the self-concept. The authors stressed the need to understand the highly gifted since the greater the giftedness, the greater the potential for psychosocial maladjustment.

Torrance, Paul E. "Problems of Highly Creative Children." Gifted Child Quarterly 5.2 (Summer 1961): 31-34.

Torrance focused on the unusual adjustment problems experienced by creative children, problems seen as inevitable considering the independence of mind which creativity demanded. Most problems cited stemmed from society's "sanctions against divergency." Creative children were pressured to become more "well rounded" rather than encouraged in their unique strengths. Creative children were found to prefer learning on their own and attempting difficult tasks, however schools proved reluctant or slow to approve either. These children also searched for purpose and uniqueness, trying to be different. They were characterized by their humor and playfulness and wild ideas. As a part of the study, 5,000 children were asked to write imaginative stories involving characters with divergent characteristics. These stories clearly reflected the children's uniqueness and their understanding of society's apparent demand for conformity. Therefore, highly creative children were faced with a choice of repressing their creativity or expressing it and coping with the problems of individuality.

Riggs, Gina Ginsberg, and S. Kenneth Riggs. "Riggs vs. Riggs." G/C/T May/June 1984, 50-51.

This feature of G/C/T provided gifted children and adults working with them the opportunity to express concerns, vent frustrations, and seek advice. An eleven year old girl wrote complaining of the meaningless busy work assigned to her, the resulting lack of time to pursue areas of genuine interest, and others' unrealistic expectations for perfection in all areas. As a girl "in a school that does not understand," she was seriously considering hiding her giftedness when entering high school. Gina sympathized, sharing similar experiences she had as a child in Germany. Both Gina and Ken advised her to be true to herself as difficult as that may be at times. Gina especially believed it was the only course for ultimate happiness. Gina encouraged her to seek out an understanding teacher with whom she could talk and a classmate who shared a special interest or sensitivity. Ken also suggested she and other gifted students send letters to educational leaders similar to the one she had submitted to them and include a compiled list of reasons detailing the need for special programs.

Webb, James T., Elizabeth A. Meckstroth, and Stephanie S. Tolan. "Peer Relationships." Guiding the Gifted Child. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio Psychology Publishing Co., 1982.

This chapter dealt with the variety of problems some gifted children faced with peer relationships. The authors accepted the existence of popular gifted, but stressed that for many adapting "to a norm different from the way they knew themselves" created difficulties. The gifted label itself posed problems, for some children felt it alienated them from their friends. Peers often perceived gifted students' high achievement as a threat and their ability and desire to organize things and people as bossiness. The increased importance of peer acceptance and conformity during the teen years caused many to "submerge" their talents, opting for belonging. The struggle for the gifted between acceptance and achievement was evident. The importance of peer acceptance as essential in the development of a positive self-concept and sense of self-worth was noted, making this a critical realm in the lives of gifted children. Some gifted established various peers: intellectual, emotional, or athletic. The basic need for friends was undeniable whether it be many, few, or one special, trusted friend.

Lajoie, Susanne P., and Bruce M. Shore. "Three Myths? The Over-Representation of the Gifted Among Dropouts, Delinquents, and Suicides." Gifted Child Quarterly 25 (1981): 138-141.

This article examined the percentage of the gifted students among dropouts, delinquents, and suicides, challenging the myth that gifted students can "make it on their own." Present research suggested that gifted were "equally represented" in the dropout category and under-represented among delinquents. However, it should be noted that broadened definitions of giftedness and follow-up studies could alter these findings. Suicide, the final category, did support over-representation of gifted students, especially at the college level. High achievers in high school became dissatisfied with college grades and feared failure. Personal standards set too high and threats to self-esteem led to suicide. The authors did caution the reader about several weaknesses inherent in the study but concluded that representation of the gifted in these categories at any level was reason for concern. Many gifted students did require special help.

Green, Donald A. "A Study of Talented High School Dropouts." Vocational Guidance Quarterly 10 (Spring 1962): 171-172.

This article reviewed the results of a state-wide dropout study in which a group of dropouts was matched with a group of persisters. The sample population, 1,652 students, revealed a sizeable number who were intellectually superior but had not finished high school or its equivalent. In an effort to establish differences between the talented dropouts and talented persisters, further comparisons were made, matching sex, school, and grade. Of the 165 talented students in the sample, identified by an I.Q. of 120 or better, 29 or 17.6% had dropped out. These 29 were then paired with 29 persisters on the basis of score, school size, and sex. Questionnaires were completed by 21 of the pairs and results reported. Criteria that exhibited a significance of .01 were high school grade point average, absence statistics, and extra-curricular activities. Test scores on intelligence tests and father's occupational levels revealed no statistically significant differences. Although small numbers were involved, they were derived from a random state-wide sample population. The author suggested that the study raised more questions than it answered.

French, Joseph L. "The Highly Intelligent Dropout." Accent on Talent 2.3 (1968): 5-6.

In a 1964-65 study in Pennsylvania, 800 high ability dropouts were discovered. Reasons traditionally given for withdrawal were noticeably absent from this group. When compared with persisters, they were found to differ in personality, interests, educational skills, and family orientation to the school processes. The males were candid, uninhibited, assertive, independent, and rebellious. Although not totally negative toward school, they felt they were not being prepared for the "real" world. Teachers were not noted for their knowledge or interest in the needs of students. Also, the dropouts complained of the high expectations and forces to conform. Individuality was consistently more important to the dropouts than the persisters. The attitudes of the unmarried female dropouts were similar to the boys. However, two-thirds of the female dropouts were either pregnant, married, and/or planning to marry. This group tended to be shy and retiring, indicating poor social adjustment. The statistics from this comprehensive study were considered especially significant since the dropout rates for Pennsylvania were among the lowest in the country.

Delisle, Jim. "Striking Out: Suicide and the Gifted Adolescent." G/C/T 24 (Sept./Oct. 1982): 16-19.

Delisle focused on the increasing number of gifted and adolescents who were choosing suicide as the only viable solution to their problems. He examined three of the major factors which often led to that decision. The discrepancy between emotional and intellectual development created self-concept problems and isolated the gifted from their peers. Secondly, the gifted adolescent feared failure. The desire for perfection, whether imposed internally or externally, inevitably resulted in disappointment. The final factor was developmental immaturities. These feelings of isolation and imperfection led many to suicide. Delisle insisted that clues were always present, and if parents and teachers developed an awareness of them and confronted them, these troubled adolescents could be helped and lives saved. He stressed the importance of being aware that the child is much more than intellect, respecting the gifted child's hurts and self-doubts, and creating an atmosphere that allows—even encourages—mistakes.

Dowdall, Cynthia B., and Nicholas Colangelo. "Underachieving Gifted Students: Review and Implications." Gifted Child Quarterly 26 (Fall 1982): 179-183.

Dowdall and Colangelo's purpose was to review and analyze research and programs of the underachieving gifted (UAG) over the past twenty years. This article presented a summary of their findings in the areas of definition, identification, characteristics, causes, and intervention programs. The most notable problem was the number of definitions. Although there was agreement that a discrepancy existed between potential and performance, the nature and magnitude of the discrepancy varied considerably, causing obvious problems in identification. They did find a consensus among researchers concerning the complexity of the problem and the variety of causes. Further, in reviewing the characteristics of UAG in comparison with other students, it was discovered that they more closely resembled under-achievers than achieving gifted. Programs for the UAG fell into two categories, intensive counseling and manipulation of classroom environment. Both exhibited little success. In conclusion, the authors stressed the need for a "commonly accepted and functional definition," comprehensive and long-term programs, and initiation of programs in the early primary grades.

Pirozzo, Ralph. "Gifted Underachievers." Roeper Review 4.4 (April/May 1982): 18-21.

Pirozzo's review of research on gifted underachievers indicated the causes for UAG were a combination of the social and psychological attributes of the individual, the nature of the school, and the programs available. Researchers often found the UAG to display anti-social behavior, negative attitudes toward school, feelings of inadequacy, and scapegoating tactics. The family of the achiever in contrast to the underachiever generally had a higher socio-economic status, placed more emphasis on academic endeavors, and exhibited an interest in the child. School curriculum often failed to challenge the bright mind. Some strongly independent UAG fought the pressure to conform by dropping out, rejecting the setting, not learning. Teachers, one of the more powerful influences, were found to harbor hostile feelings toward the gifted, and to be satisfied with only "good" work, and discourage divergent thinking. All contributed to underachievement. The two major strategies used to help UAG, counseling and changes in the educational environment, had little effect. Pirozzo observed that the powerful effects of the established personality patterns of the UAG required great effort to modify. Also, any intervention program should be started as early as possible for maximum benefit.

Delisle, Jim. "Learning to Underachieve." Roeper Review 4.4 (April/May 1982): 16-18.

Underachievement was viewed as a behavior, one learned and capable of modification. Recognized by adults as a problem, underachievement then became a problem for children who suffered knowing they were disappointing teachers and parents. Children learned to view abilities not in terms of accomplishments but unfulfilled goals. Delisle believed awareness of the causes and use of preventive strategies could improve the child's self-worth. The author examined several behavioral dualities to emphasize the shift in attitudes which was imperative if the underachieving behavior were to change. Push versus pull contrasted the external push for "best" with the initiative-based pull in which the child made an active choice to pursue a course. Risk taking, much like push, involved initiation by an outside force, again creating fear of less than perfect performance. In risk-making the child initiated the risk "with parent or teacher serving as spectator, offering guidance and encouragement." Two other dualities discussed were encouragement versus praise and first best versus first worst. Finally, Delisle recommended searching within the parents, teachers, and curricula for the causes of underachievement rather than looking to the child.

Barrett, Harry O. "An Intensive Study of 32 Gifted Children." Personnel and Guidance Journal 36 (Nov. 1957): 192-194.

This study of underachievement was conducted by the heads of guidance departments of the Toronto secondary schools. Two superior students (I.Q. 130+) were selected from each school, the one scoring highest on a mid-winter examination and the one scoring lowest. The intensive study of the 32 selected students was conducted by psychiatrists, psychologists, school counselors, teachers, and public health nurses. Thorough information was gathered on each child's academic ability, home environment, medical history, and personality patterns. The author warned that the study characteristics made generalizations unwise, but certain patterns were detectable. Results in intellectual ability indicated the underachievement was apparent by grade 5 (starting level of study), high achievers remaining high achievers, and the gap between the two groups narrowed on standardized achievement tests. Although home background provided less distinctive patterns, parents of underachievers displayed a neutral or uninterested attitude toward education and were more inconsistent and overanxious toward their children. Teachers found both groups equally cooperative, but the underachievers exhibited a negative attitude toward school. Personality patterns indicated both groups "suffered from feelings of inadequacy" and experienced adolescent adjustment problems although the achievers were better able to cope. Finally, Barrett stressed the individual nature of underachievement. Only a study of each child will reveal causes.

Shaw, Merville C., and Donald J. Brown. "Scholastic Underachievement of Bright College Students." Personnel and Guidance Journal 36 (Nov. 1957): 195-199.

Shaw and Brown conducted a study to discover the characteristics of underachieving bright college students. The criteria for the underachieving group was placement in the 75th percentile or above on the ACE and grade point average below the mean of the freshman class. The control group received similar scores on the ACE, but their grade point placed them in the upper quartile. The t test was used to verify the significant difference in grade point averages and lack of difference of ACE scores. The groups were compared on a variety of academic, psychological, and social criteria. One of the most revealing results was no significant difference on the Cooperative Achievement Tests, indicating the underachievers had "absorbed" an equal amount of information as the achievers in the control group. The researchers also found the underachievement to be characteristic of the students throughout high school. Other data with statistical significance included: the achievers tended to come from larger population areas, achievers carried more academic units, and the underachievers exhibited an attitude of hostility with respect to people. The authors recommended further research on the causal factors.

Gifted Children Speak Out On.....

Approaches and Programs

My parents buy me lots of books, especially books about things I am interested in, like baseball and Greek myths.

Boy, 9, New York: 95

. . . If I'm interested in something, they try to find someone who will teach me well!

Girl, 12, New York: 97

My parents, each in their own ways, let me be independent. I get responsibilities that I can handle, and I'm very thankful. They treat me like an adult, talk to me like an adult, and trust me like an adult. They let me try art, literature and other special things. And they listen to me--it helps so much that they listen. They let me make decisions for myself, even if they think it's not a good idea. What's more, they're very patient--they help, but they don't push. Most important, they respect me.

Girl, 11, Michigan: 96

I'm probably happiest at home when I have a bad day at school and I walk inside my home and my mom gives me a kiss promptly.

Boy, 11, Louisiana: 99

My favorite thing was when I got beat up by the un-gifted

kids in my old school, because that was why my mom decided I could go to an all-gifted private school.

Girl, 12, Michigan: 100

I like to be able to ask a lot of questions. Sometimes the teacher will let us share information with the other classmates and let them learn a little from me.

Boy, 12, New York: 62

I like when teachers let you figure things out on your own because you learn more that way.

Girl, 12, New York: 62

I enjoy games that teach, for instance, Scamper. Scamper is a game that teaches children how to use their imaginations. The teacher reads things from a book and we try to imagine the things she says. Sometimes we draw pictures of what we saw in our imaginations. I like to draw the pictures and sometimes the stories are funny.

Girl, 8, Rhode Island: 58

Before, I never used to like book reports, but ever since I did them with Mrs. Foster I've liked them. What she would do is have us either do a news report on it for the class or make costumes and act out our favorite part.

Girl, 10, New York: 59

. . . I enjoy going to school and learning new things. I dislike play period because it means less time to learn the things I find interesting. But no, I never get bored.

Girl, 10, North Carolina: 77

A teacher is gifted when she knows what to do with each kid in her class. Like if she has a gifted kid and a kid who has a learning problem and she puts them in the same book, then she is not gifted, but if she puts each where they belong, then she is gifted.

Girl, 11, Nebraska: 70

She treats me like a person, not a little kid! She smiles a lot and she understands me, lets me do projects that I want to do, no matter how hard they are.

Girl, 12, New York: 70

Webb, James T., Elizabeth A. Meckstroth, and Stephanie T. Tolan. "Stress Management." Guiding the Gifted Child. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio Psychology Publishing Co., 1982.

Webb examined stress factors for the gifted and suggested various stress management techniques to help them cope. The temperament, environment, and I.Q. were all noted as highly influential in the levels of stress experienced in each child. Potential causes of stress included myths others believe of the gifted, the insensitivity of others, the acute sensitivity of the gifted, their high aspirations, difficulty with peer relationships, and uneven development. Perfectionism was another major stressor, for the gifted tended to be overly critical of themselves and experienced conflict between the drive to succeed and desire to be accepted. Webb's discussion of stress management concluded with the report of a significant study conducted by G.E. Vaillant (1977). In this longitudinal study, the best and brightest Harvard men (268) were followed over a 35 year period. It was discovered that the projected success of many was never realized. The difference between those who fell short and those who succeeded was the successful ones had developed the necessary strategies "for coping with the stresses of life's challenges." (121)

Williams, A. "Teaching Gifted Students How to Deal With Stress." The Gifted Child Quarterly 23.1 (Spring 1979): 136-141.

Research confirmed that excessive external pressures, feelings of neglect, and loneliness all created stress for the gifted, diminishing or freezing creativity and productivity. The negative effects of stress prompted Williams to develop a stress coping model, primarily for use with independent study programs. With the help of eighteen gifted seventh graders the model evolved over a three year period. The coping model was designed to help students learn to accept uncertainty, accept confusion, control consciousness, cope with fear of unknown, accept wrongness, deal with excitement, and handle internal feelings of success and failure. Among the significant behavioral changes which the evaluation revealed were "a reduction of fear and failure" and the willingness "to take a chance or a stand." Also, the need to have ideas approved, initially the strongest concern, was almost nonexistent by the third year. The students ranked the oral communication activities as most beneficial, for they provided "a release for feelings of confusion, fear, and anxiety of the present and future." The successes convinced the author "we have a responsibility to teach [the gifted] how to bring learning and living into harmony" (140).

Hayes, Donald G., and Michael Levitt. "Stress: An Inventory for Parents." G/C/T, Sept./Oct. 1982, 8-12.

Stress, the recognition of it and the response to it were addressed by the authors. Children, especially adolescents, were acknowledged as constantly facing stressful situations. Recognized as useful if directed in a positive manner, stress also proved destructive if prolonged. For children lacking the "inner resources" to handle stress, the support of parents became imperative. The authors provided several guidelines for parents to increase their awareness and responsiveness. A brief checklist inventory was included to aid parents in recognizing symptoms of stress in their children and identifying possible causes. A responses list afforded parents the opportunity to honestly assess whether they were helping their children develop the resources to cope with stress or contributing to the problem. Finally, parents were encouraged to seek professional help for serious cases. A chart for parents listing stress symptoms and behavioral techniques designed to reduce the symptoms emphasized the critical role of the home even if working with professionals.

Schwartz, Lita Linzer. "Are You a Gifted Parent of a Gifted Child?" Gifted Child Quarterly 25 (Winter 1981): 31-35.

Schwartz discussed the necessity of parents of the gifted to provide an encouraging environment to help children reach toward their potential. The gift alone was not enough. Those parents who offered their children opportunities for growth were those most inclined to raise "a gifted and mentally healthy adult." Specific parenting skills were identified as essential if the challenge was to be successfully met. The Pennsylvania Department of Education questioned parents to aid them in determining if they were "gifted parents." All questions related to one of seven skills areas: handling questions, developing physical and social skills, teaching decision-making, encouraging activities, being a model, facing giftedness, and enhancing family relationships. Each area was discussed by the author, examining the techniques that helped provide the optimal environment for growth, one based on encouragement, understanding, and love.

Sebring, Albert D. "Parental Factors in the Social and Emotional Adjustment of the Gifted." Roeper Review 6 (November 1983): 97-99.

In this article Sebring contended the successful social and emotional adjustment of gifted children depended upon the security provided by the love and acceptance of their parents. Uneven development was discussed as a key problem area. In addition, misunderstanding of the child's specific giftedness resulted in expectations and demands in areas beyond the child's capabilities, inevitably resulting in unnecessary stress, frustration, and feelings of failure. Also, Sebring reminded parents of the child's need to be a child—time to think, to play, to do nothing. He warned parents against using the child to live out their own fantasies, to prove current success, or to realize personal goals and desires. He stressed the need to value the individuality of the child, show acceptance of the child in failure, avoid the perfectionist syndrome, teach responsibility through opportunities for decision making, and understand the child's type of giftedness.

Sawyer, Robert N. "Advice for Parents: Open Doors, Show Love, Relax." Psychology Today June 1984, 36.

Sawyer, director of T.I.P. at Duke University and father of two gifted children, offered the following advice to parents: 1. Let your child guide you. 2. Provide an atmosphere where exploration can take place. 3. Demonstrate that learning is fun. 4. Expose your child to a variety of experiences. 5. Accept the ways in which your child is different. 6. Show your pride in their accomplishments and your love for them as unique individuals. 7. Work with teachers, counselors, and administrators on the appropriate program for your child. 8. Suggest alternatives, including individualized instruction, summer programs, independent study, acceleration, or a university course. 9. Be aware of outside pressure from vendors selling books and learning devices.

Sawyer concluded by warning parents they may be called elitist for wanting the appropriate educational opportunities for their children but reinforced the belief that each child had "the right to receive an education commensurate with his or her potential" (36).

Hackney, Harold. "The Gifted Child, the Family, and the School." Gifted Child Quarterly 25 (Spring 1981): 51-54.

Hackney's study focused on the impact a gifted child had on the family, an area in which little research had been done to date. A project sponsored by Purdue University for gifted children and their families revealed a common feeling among parents that giftedness was "not necessarily a positive experience." They felt the child altered the normal roles in the family, affected parents' feelings about themselves, required special adaptations within the family, produced special family/neighborhood and school/family problems. This focus on the problems of the family was viewed as essential in the study of the gifted child. It was felt the school must develop an understanding of the family if it is to interact successfully. The school counselor was seen as the key liaison between the two systems.

Sherman, Wilma M. "The Importance of Parent/Teacher Cooperation in Gifted Education." Roeper Review 5.1 (Sept. 1982): 42-44.

In view of fluctuating financial support for gifted programs and the absence of such programs in many systems, Sherman emphasized the importance of parents working with the teachers in the education of their gifted children. This article discussed specific classroom problems, practical solutions, and characteristics needed by parents and teachers for successful interaction. Patience was perceived as most valuable, not only in dealing with the gifted child but also administrators, school boards, and civic leaders. Commitment was another essential trait, especially considering the time normally involved in convincing officials of the need, securing approval, and implementing the special programs. Verbal and/or written acknowledgement of teacher and parents' efforts enhanced the cooperative relationship. Understanding, the final trait discussed, was viewed from two perspectives, parents' and teachers' understanding of each other and also the gifted child. Sherman stressed that recognition of the special problems and needs of the gifted and cooperative parent/teacher approach to solutions would benefit the gifted.

Ward, Virgil S. "Program Organization and Implementation." The Gifted Student: A Manual for Program Improvement A Report of the Southern Regional Project for Education of the Gifted (1962): 71-78.

This project report reviewed administrative procedures required in the organization and implementation of programs for the gifted. Ability grouping, desirable at all levels, enabled students to undertake activities with intellectual peers which were not possible in a regular classroom. Acceleration provided for those students with the ability to master tasks at a faster pace than average. Since gifted students displayed the capability of learning with little direct teacher supervision, independent study was found to be an appropriate approach. However, it was emphasized these were merely procedures which "encouraged the development of the characteristics" of the gifted. Programs required modifications in routine, curriculum content, and organization. The key variable in any gifted program was unquestionably the teacher. Special ability, training, and interest in teaching the gifted were cited as essential teacher qualifications for a successful program.

Renzulli, Joseph S. "Identifying Key Features in Programs for the Gifted." In Psychology and Education of the Gifted. Ed. William B. Barbe and Joseph S. Renzulli. New York: Irvington Publishers Inc., 1975, 324-329.

The Renzulli study was conducted to determine the features deemed essential for the development and evaluation of gifted programs. The three step procedure began with the gathering and reviewing of relevant information to be used in the preparation of a comprehensive list of program characteristics. Selected by their peers on the basis of knowledge and contributions to the education of the gifted, a panel of 21 judges was asked to rank in order of importance the features on the list most necessary for a high quality program and to stop ranking when they had reached the number of features that would assure a good program. Results were obtained through a pooled frequency rating system and the following seven emerged as essential features of differential programs: the teacher, the curriculum, student selection procedures, a statement of philosophy and objectives, staff orientation, a plan of evaluation, and administrative responsibility. It was hoped by the author that the study would provide a rationale for decision making in the development of programs for the gifted.

Cohn, S.J. "Myth No. 2: Educational Acceleration Leads to the Social Maladjustment of Intellectually Talented Youths." The Gifted Child Quarterly 22 (Spring 1978): 125-127.

To dispell the myth surrounding educational acceleration, Cohn cited empirical data concerning the social development of the gifted. The famous Terman longitudinal study included a large number of students who had been accelerated at least one grade. Of 16 boys and 12 girls who skipped three or more years by the end of high school, case studies revealed all but two boys were rated superior or average on social adaptability. Follow-up studies by Terman and Oden of the entire group revealed those who had been accelerated exhibited "a greater tendency to become high-level professionals and businessmen." This most successful group consistently had positive ratings on social adjustment. Studies sponsored by the Ford Foundation of early entrants to college corroborated the Terman findings, concluding " . . . far from being maladoptive, [youths] are well equipped to successfully encounter life." Research indicated the harm to the gifted came not in acceleration but in the insistence they remain in the traditional lock-step system.

Sanderson, Katherine. "'Gifted Student' Program Will Expand to MHS." South Bend Tribune 5 May 1985, 44.

Tom Meyer, coordinator of the gifted and talented program for Mishawaka School City, announced the expansion of the program to the high school. The program will allow students to take gifted classes in some subjects but will not require enrollment in all areas. Compression of courses, independent study, and advanced placement for college credit were noted as features designed for the needs of these students. Meyer stressed the courses were devised to avoid the "more of the same" syndrome. For example, in history a student might study heroes and cowards or the ethnicity of Mishawaka. Underclassmen who have mastered the basics in English may take transformational grammar, discussion, debate, or write scripts and poetry. Meyer explained the transcript would indicate gifted classes but added if grade point average was a primary concern, the student probably should not take the course. "We want to stretch the kids as far as we can," Meyer stated. Finally, Meyer indicated evaluation of the program would be a continuous process.

Harris, Rosemary. "The In/Out Approach to Locating Mentors for Gifted Programs." G/C/T March/April 1985, 10-11.

Although advocated by experts, mentorships for the gifted were inconsistently utilized due primarily to the complexity of implementation. Harris suggested a system to locate and recruit mentors, recognized as one of the major obstacles. The In/Out approach was based upon a four phase search, starting with the individual teacher. After brainstorming and all personal acquaintances possessing an expertise were exhausted, the search continued to the school environment, to parents and relatives of the school community, and finally to the community at large. As the scope broadened a committee was formed to divide the tasks. As mentors were recruited, a directory was compiled for further reference. The true success of the system was the expanded learning opportunities afforded the students.

Safter, H. Tammy, and Catherine B. Bruch. "Use of the DGG Model for Differential Guidance for the Gifted." Gifted Child Quarterly 25 (Fall 1981): 167-172.

The wide diversity of the gifted prompted the development of the Differential Guidance for Gifted Model (DGG), focusing on the process for determining individual plans for specific students. Critical variables in the determination of guidance and counseling procedures included the student's type(s) of giftedness, socio-economic status, value orientation of the family, and grade or level of development of the child. This counseling model, rather than being crisis oriented, was an ongoing process, "a proactive mental health approach." With designers cognizant of the shortcomings in the traditional identification procedures, this model utilized a case study approach centered under a knowledgeable guidance person. After identification, the counselor assumed primary responsibility for placement of the child. The counselor then functioned as effector in counseling and guidance, initiator of out-of-school experiences, and consultant in the curriculum.

Patterson, Patricia, and Sherolyn Starcher. "Encounter Program." G/C/T May/June 1984, 12-14.

The Encounter Program was designed to meet the special needs of the gifted students which traditionally were not addressed in the middle school guidance programs. The Encounter Program made guidance and counseling a strategic component of the school program. It created a curriculum to help them understand their social, emotional, and academic requirements, encouraging affective processes, creativity, and self-development. Special training for the teachers was viewed as imperative. Given the structure of the middle school, constant availability of counselors to discuss problems with teachers and the gifted was not feasible, making it necessary for the teacher to double as counselor. Whether implemented as a separate resource program or incorporated into content areas within the regular gifted program, curriculum and guidance were intended to interact in this nine week cyclical Encounter Program. After the initial training of teachers, the counselors functioned as resource people and provided "support services." Both formative and summative evaluations of the program were included in the design.

Yancey, Elizabeth. Increasing Participation of Minority and Culturally Diverse Students in Gifted Programs. Report by Mid-Atlantic Center for Race Equity. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, 1983.

This report was designed to be used by administrators and directors of gifted programs as a resource to increase the participation of minorities. The report examined issues linked to the underrepresentation of minority students, including disagreement regarding definitions of giftedness, biased and restricted identification procedures, promising practices for identifying minorities, and a list of recommendations for administrators and teachers. Research findings were noted which substantiate the concern for underrepresentation. According to the U.S. Department of Education in 1982, 26.8% of students enrolled in public schools were minorities, but only 17.9% were participating in gifted programs. The report contended increased attention must be given to this issue and cited the research and expert opinions of those working toward greater minority involvement in gifted programs.

Gore, Mary Jane. "The Gifted Minority." Psychology Today June 1984, 32.

A satellite program affiliated with Howard University in Washington, D.C. for gifted children was recognized as distinctive since 94% of the students were minorities. James H. Williams established the program to combat the perception of minorities as learning disadvantaged. The program grew appreciably over its first five years, gaining the enthusiastic support of the university. The staff increased from three to fifteen, and selected students in grades second through eleventh came from eight states in addition to the Washington area. The initial courses in language arts, science, and mathematics expanded to include such diverse classes as electronics, robotics, creative writing, and anatomy. For four weeks the program challenged their critical-thinking and problem-solving skills, but for those students "trapped in substandard schools that do little to recognize or encourage potential, the rest of the year posed serious problems."

Torrence, E. Paul. "Creative Teaching Makes a Difference." In Creativity: Its Educational Implications. Ed. Gowan, Demos, and Torrence. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1967.

Torrence challenged the concept that drops in creativity at ages five, nine, and twelve were simply developmental. Longitudinal studies conducted by the University of Minnesota indicated the pressures toward standardization and conformity were responsible. Laboratory and field experiments showed teacher methods, materials, attitudes, and relationships with students made a difference in creative development. For example, two fourth grade classrooms with creative teachers revealed no slump. Of 165 teachers, administrators, and school psychologists asked to relate a situation in which creative teaching made a difference, 82% offered examples. Included among the many incidents were changing troublemaker to star learner, apathy for school to enthusiasm, and mediocre achievement among gifted to outstanding performance. The article also contained a long list of creative ways of teaching.

Carter, Elizabeth Bobrick. "A Teacher's View: Learning to be Wrong." Psychology Today June 1984, 35.

Carter, who spent part of her Saturdays and summer vacations teaching at the Johns Hopkins Center for the Academically Talented Youths (C.T.Y.), provided a teacher's perspective of the gifted and their education. She adamantly disclaimed the attitude that the gifted can make it on their own. The programs at C.T.Y. recognized their potential, congratulated them, provided them with a challenge, made expectations clear, and demonstrated that mistakes are opportunities for growth. Carter observed that few of the gifted knew what it was to work hard at learning and realized that their high potential did not automatically ensure achievement. Rather than damaging their adolescent egos as many adults fear, the challenge allowed the gifted to search for an identity. Carter emphasized that teaching the gifted was not for "the faint-hearted." Although their bright minds made them ideal students in many respects, they were difficult to stay ahead of and impossible "to bluff." Students were not always right but neither was the teacher. Carter used these opportunities to show one could make a mistake and survive. In concluding, Carter acknowledged the desire of these children to do the things regular kids do in the summer, but she emphasized that programs like C.T.Y. must be an option for them.

Bachtold, Louise M. "Reflections of Gifted Learners." The Gifted Child Quarterly 22 (Spring 1978): 116-124.

Bachtold investigated the realization of potential among students who participated in special classes for grades four through six initiated in 1958 in a California school district. A questionnaire was sent to 69 of the students, and responses were received from 36, providing information on school experiences, current personal and professional circumstances, and suggestions for educational planning for the gifted. Personal information reflected 23-30 year old confident men and women with an active interest in sports, hobbies, reading, and travel. Respondents overwhelmingly selected college or graduate school as their best school experience for the challenge of learning and freedom. The second most frequent choice was K-6 due to participation in the special classes. The worst were junior high and high school. They cited boredom, alienation, social maladjustment, and self-doubt among the reasons. All respondents entered college although some "stopped out" before graduation. Of those, most returned to finish their degrees. Suggestions offered for gifted education reinforced the concept of differentiated instruction, emphasized the need for better counseling at all grade levels, and urged the development of self-awareness and "survival" skills.

Thumasathit, Thi. "A Student's View: Becoming One of Us." Psychology Today June 1984, 34.

Student Thi Thumasathit lauded the summer Talent Identification Program (T.I.P.) at Duke University. The program offered a combination of classes and extracurricular activities. Thi noted the sense of excitement he felt among the people on the campus. For many of the students it was an opportunity to be "one of us" rather than "one of them" as the gifted were often labeled in their hometowns. Lasting friendships were formed as a result. Academically, Thi felt challenged for the first time. T.I.P. taught him how to work and encouraged him to "pursue my education to the fullest." He realized how bored he had been in his public school and made the decision to transfer to Phillips Exeter Academy in New Hampshire, "getting the biggest academic challenge I've ever had." The importance of T.I.P. and its impact on Thi was evident from his closing comments. "After 14 weeks, I feel that my time has come, and I have to make room for others. I won't be there physically, but my memories, words, actions, and friends will. In that sense, I will always be a part of Duke and T.I.P., and T.I.P. will continue to be a part of me."

Cox, Ann. "The Gifted Student: A Neglected Presence?" Teacher 97.3 (Nov./Dec. 1979): 75-76.

A weekend seminar on teaching the gifted and talented heightened the awareness of Ann Cox, former teacher. The course convinced her the gifted are a "poorly understood and often tragically mishandled group" of children. She had been a caring teacher with an open classroom but had failed to realize that students with superior abilities needed extra attention to reach their potential in the regular classroom. She recognized misusing the free time of her high ability students who finished assignments quickly and overlooking the natural leadership, perfectionism, creativity, and clowning of other students as potential signs of giftedness. It was evident to Cox that the special needs of these students were not being recognized or met. She also admitted resisting total individualization on the assumption it was undemocratic to set them apart. She came to realize that it was possible to have differentiated curriculum and still allow all students to take part in the class as a whole.

Lyon, H.C. "Our Most Neglected Natural Resource." Today's Education 70.1 (Feb./March 1981): 15-20.

In spite of the educational system's increased awareness of individual needs, Lyon found the gifted and talented continued to suffer from neglect. The government's occasional interest in them surged in 1957 with the launching of Sputnik but decreased during the 1960's as U.S. space exploits surpassed the Soviets, and civil rights shifted the concern from the gifted. Not until the Congress-mandated Marland Report in 1969 did the gifted again merit federal attention. The results produced a "startling portrait of neglect." The Office for the Gifted and Talented (OGT) was established in 1972 per Report recommendations. Ten years after the Marland Report an Office for Civil Rights survey revealed definite progress, including state expenditures of $117 million compared with the Marland figure of $15 million and an increase in the number of gifted served from 4% to 35%. However, Lyon cautioned against unrestrained optimism over the promising trend, for there were similar trends in the past which stalled. Also, Lyon noted the powerful myths surrounding the gifted which created obstacles to their education. Many schools continued to ignore the gifted, wasting potential which could benefit society.

Lee, Felicia. "Gifted Kids: Shortchanged by Schools." USA Today 21 January 1985, D1.

The Richardson Study: A National Investigation of Educational Opportunities for Able Learners concluded the U.S. schools were not doing enough. This comprehensive, four year study surveyed every U.S. public and parochial school. Responses from 1,572 school districts revealed a lack of resources for identification of the gifted and an absence of qualified teachers and necessary curricula for gifted programs. According to Joy Brown, study director, a high percentage of these unchallenged gifted students dropped out. Boredom caused others to become discipline problems while most merely "drifted through the education program." However, some valuable programs were noted. The five best included mentor and internship programs, collaborations between high schools and colleges, college summer programs, specialized schools, and international programs. Neil Daniel, one author of the study, stressed the need to coordinate programs over the 12 year educational experience.

Feldhusen, John, and Steven M. Hoover. "The Gifted at Risk in a Place Called School." Gifted Child Quarterly 28 (Winter 1984): 9-11.

Feldhusen and Hoover made observations and recommendations based upon the findings of two studies, John P. Goodlad's A Place Called School (in press) and the report from the National Commission on Excellence in Education A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform. The authors felt the bleak assessment presented by Goodlad was tempered by the Commission's strong recommendations for reform. They interpreted these recommendations and their implications for the gifted and talented. Differentiated instruction, special classes, improvement of teacher personnel, and endorsement of acceleration were key features. However, since provisions for the gifted and talented were not explicit, the possibility existed that national response to the report could bypass them completely. Feldhusen and Hoover hoped the stated goal " . . . to develop the talents of all to their fullest" (9) would be accurately interpreted as " . . . differentiated instructional opportunities for different groups—slow learners, learning disabled, emotionally disturbed, and gifted" (10).

Conclusion

As the research and expert opinions reviewed indicate, there are numerous areas which harbor potential obstacles for the gifted regarding their social, psychological, and academic development. These include theoretical, practical, societal, and personal issues. The problems overlap and intertwine which makes the study of the gifted complex and changes in detrimental situations difficult to effect. The definition of the nature of giftedness and talent is the first major barrier.

Lewis M. Terman was the first to conduct a major, longitudinal study of the gifted, a term first used by Guy M. Whipple (Passow: 5). Terman's definition of giftedness was keyed to performance on the 1916 version of the Stanford Binet Intelligence test (Terman: 223). This restrictive view tied to an I.Q. score gave way to expanded definitions, evolving throughout this century, and disagreement which continues to the present (Passow: 8, Fehrle: 3). Passow and Fox reviewed some of the research and definitions inherent in the studies. Among those cited were Leta S. Hollingworth's view of the gifted as ones "more educable" than the average and Paul Witty's interpretation as "one who shows consistently remarkable performance in any worthwhile line of endeavor" (Fox: 1103). The most liberal definition was that of Feldman who believed "all children are gifted." Not all moved toward an all-encompassing definition, for Joseph S. Renzulli's concept (Renzulli and Smith 1980) of giftedness involved three interrelated pupil characteristics; above average ability, high levels of task commitment, and

creativity.

In the midst of the diverse theoretical definitions emerged the United States Office of Education definition. The Marland report gave this country the first national level, legal guidelines on giftedness. By 1978, 42 states had adopted laws or regulations based upon the federal definition (Fox: 1104). Some states narrowed the definition to include only the intellectual and academic aspects (Fehrle: 3), ignoring the "talented" segments of the definition.

This lack of consistency in definition has a profound affect on identification procedures, for they are inextricably bound. Renzulli and Smith (1980), Passow, Fox, and Renzulli, Hartman, and Callahan all addressed the issue. In essence, they all agreed the concept and operational definition of giftedness determined the identification procedures employed and also were instrumental in program development. The broadened definition logically increased the number and types of identification methods. Rather than depend on a single measure, Gowan, Renzulli and Smith (1977 and 1980), and Fox concurred that a variety of approaches proved most successful. Renzulli and Smith and Safer and Burch favored the case study for its "multi-informational approach" and success in locating gifted minorities. The traditional reliance on an intelligence test score was seen as biased and inflexible. The variance in cutoff scores from one researcher and study to another (Terman: 223, Pegnano and Birch: 300, Green: 17, and Webb, Meckstroth, and Tolan: 4) also illustrated an inherent weakness.

Marland cited two other identification procedures widely used and relatively ineffective, group tests and teacher nomination. Treffinger, Renzulli, and Feldhusen, Thomas and Crescimbeni, Pegnano and Birch, and Fox all believed teacher nomination to be inaccurate. However, considering the expanded definition of giftedness and greater number of students included, these authors deemed it imperative that criteria be established and training be made available to teachers to improve their effectiveness in locating the gifted. Getzels and Jackson, Torrance, and Treffinger, Renzulli, and Feldhusen discussed the limitations of these methods in assessing and identifying the creatively gifted child since "their ideas simply do not conform to the standardized dimensions, the behavioral norms on which responses are judged" (Torrance: 34). Add to the diversity of definition and identification the diversity of the gifted themselves as discussed by Juntune, Passow, Webb, Meckstroth, and Tolan and the potential for problems multiplies.

The type of giftedness, degree of ability, character, and situational variables make each gifted child unique, but the mere fact that he or she is gifted creates a distinction. Gifted children possess abilities the average child does not, placing them in a separate category. As gifted children they are vulnerable to unique problems; some internally imposed, others external in origin. All have potentially damaging and even tragic effects.

Acute sensitivity (Whitmore, Roedell, Manaster and Powell, and Johnson), uneven development (Delisle Sept./Oct. 1982,

Roedell, and Kaplan), and alienation from peers (Whitmore, Delisle, Pirozzo, Manaster and Powell) graphically set them apart. The "average kid" within the gifted child wants to be accepted but his or her superior abilities often block this. Webb, Meckstroth, and Tolan emphasized the importance of friends for the gifted to help " . . . tolerate pressures, slights, insults he may receive from others" (150). Some develop various peer groups dependent upon the activity (Webb, Meckstroth, and Tolan: 146, Roedell: 129). Lyon, Lemov, and Riggs and Riggs concurred that many others chose to hide their giftedness to ensure social acceptance.

Another major problem area for the gifted is perfectionism. Manaster and Powell, Whitmore, Lemov, Roedell, and Culbertson found this to be a common trait. Roedell referred to an "inner push" which caused the gifted to set "impossible goals." Culbertson and Lemov defined it as a drive to "excel in everything." Culbertson quoted one gifted child, "I feel like I should excel in all areas and won't be normal if I make mistakes" (49). This pressure is often intensified by unrealistic expectations of parents and teachers (Delisle Sept./Oct. 1982, Roedell, and Culbertson). Kaplan warned of the need to put superior intellectual abilities into perspective. Manaster and Powell echoed this concern stressing the need to address the emotional requirements of the gifted. The overemphasis on the cognitive abilities led to a fear of failure and a low self-concept. Tragically, suicide has too often been the answer to this pressure and threat to self-esteem (Lajoie, Lemov, and Webb, Meck-

stroth, and Tolan).

Lemov, Pirozzo, and Lee cited inappropriate situations as instrumental in creating further problems for the gifted. When placed in regular classrooms or ineffective gifted programs, boredom is a natural result. These students' abilities go unchallenged as illustrated by these comments from gifted adults concerning junior and senior high school experiences, " . . . a total waste of time . . . . boring mostly, had no relevance to what I feel is important to know" (Backtold: 118).

Teachers often contributed to the inappropriate learning environment. Marland, Lyon, and Johnson noted teacher impatience with these children who fail to conform to the standardized mold. Torrance established this demand for standardization as a primary cause for the drop in creativity among students at key educational levels. The earlier findings of Gallagher and Crowder supported this concept of diminished creativity. Pirozzo, Lyon, Lemov, and Johnson reported some teachers to be outwardly hostile. Powell and Haden revealed others fear the gifted, especially those highly gifted.

Students subjected to these detrimental influences respond in several ways, singly or in combination. Lajoie, Marland, French, Green, and Pirozzo gave evidence of the high percentage of gifted who drop out of school. Lemov (227) revealed figures as high as 30%, noting boredom with the traditional system as key. Marland also blamed the lock step system geared to chronological age. Dropouts surveyed in the French study (6) cited the system, teachers, and unreasonable expectations

among the reasons for withdrawal. Students less assertive and independent remained in school, becoming discipline problems and/or underachievers (Marland: III-3, Roedell: 129, Johnson: 27GS).

Underachievement is a complex problem. As Dowdall and Colangelo pointed out, like giftedness, underachievement has multiple definitions making identification difficult. The variety of causes adds to the complexity. In addition to the diverse reasons previously cited which included the desire for acceptance, boredom, the system, and unrealistic adult expectations, Delisle (April/May 1982) pointed to the perfectionist implications. A child's guilt which says, "I should be doing more," lowers the self-concept (16). Fear of failure makes underachievement an attractive alternative. Kaplan (75) noted those who "aim too low." By selecting the easier schedule or the less prestigious university, success is assured. Manaster and Powell, Dowdall and Colangelo, Marland, and Roedell reported role conflict as another possible cause.

Within the complexity, several relatively consistent characteristics can be distinguished among the underachieving student population. Pirozzo and Barrett cited their negative attitude toward school and "feelings of inadequacy." Pirozzo, Shaw and Brown, and Whitmore found them to be hostile and antisocial. The only similarities they shared with their achieving peers were high scores on standardized intelligence and achievement tests as noted by Dowdall and Colangelo, Barrett, and Shaw and Brown. Barrett, Marland, Shaw and Brown concluded that the

tendency to underachieve surfaces early in the educational experience. Pirozzo, Marland, Whitmore, and Dowdall and Colangelo concurred that any programs to reverse or ideally prevent underachievement must start early, be long term, and involve the parents. Johnson (27GS) related the results of two studies which emphasized the severity of the problem. In Iowa, 45% of all students with an I.Q. of over 130 had grade averages lower than C, and Toledo, Ohio, identified 58% of their gifted as underachievers. Delisle (April/May 1982: 18) advocated searching the parents, teachers and curriculum for causes and solutions to the pervasive problem of underachieving gifted. Evidence justifies the approach.

Fortunately, in the midst of all the problems there is hope. The future need not remain bleak for the many gifted and talented children of this country who experience the dark side of giftedness. The problem is a multidimensional one which requires a multi-faceted solution. For those whose behavioral and environmental patterns are too deeply rooted it may be too late, but for the others there can be relief, acceptance, and enjoyment.

Management of stress was seen as critical for the gifted by Webb, Meckstroth, Williams, and Hayes and Levitt. Williams developed a stress coping model for use with independent study programs. A letter from one of his students attested to its success. "You taught me how to be myself and not to be afraid to make a mistake" (140). Bachtold's survey of gifted adults elicited this response, " . . . what kids need to know . . . is

how to deal with people, how to find and use resources, and how to make their lives rich and satisfying" (122). Barrett and Webb, Meckstroth, and Tolan reported studies in which the ability to cope with the stress "of life's challenges" distinguishes the successful from the unsuccessful. Hayes and Levitt emphasized the necessity of parental support.

Schwartz, Sebring, and Sawyer stressed the crucial role the parents assume in the healthy development of their gifted children. Sebring (97) stated, "Their handling of 'gifted parenthood' will possibly have more impact on their child's adjustment than any other facet of that child's life." All three advised parents to appreciate the child's individuality and encourage the giftedness. Schwartz and Sebring warned parents to avoid unrealistic time demands and psychological pressures upon the child. They reminded parents to let them be children and provide a loving environment based on trust and understanding.

From the home, the gifted move to school where effective programs are essential. As Marland (II-17) reported:

> The gifted students who have had the advantage of special programs have shown remarkable improvement in self-understanding and in ability to relate well to others, as well as in improved academic and creative performance.

The importance of gifted programs is undeniable, but unfortunately, not all districts offer them. Sawyer, Hackney, Fehrle, and Sherman stressed the significance of a cooperative effort between home and school in the education of the gifted which becomes especially critical in the absence of special programs.

Lyon (19) stated the "future of gifted education rests with the . . . individual school systems and teachers." Since local districts control the education, parents and teachers can be instrumental in initiating or improving gifted programs.

Ward, Lyon, Feldhusen and Hoover, and Marland discussed the variety of strategies available to meet the needs of the gifted, including ability grouping, independent study, and acceleration. With the exception of advanced placement classes, acceleration has been the most controversial. As Cohn and Ward pointed out, social maladjustment was believed to be the unavoidable consequence of acceleration. In reality, research supports the overwhelming benefits. Many of the Terman group were accelerated and the follow-up studies found these subjects more successful. Cohn (127) reported the findings from studies sponsored by the Ford Foundation for early college entrants which also refuted the maladjustment theory.

Not all gifted programs are framed within the traditional school setting. Lyon, Lemov, and Lee concluded mentorships were among the best programs available. Lemov (230) cited a Harvard astronomer who became a mentor for a young black 14 year old boy from the ghetto. He took the boy to the Sahara to study a solar eclipse. The mentor is an under-used approach yet one that could realize the greatest success. Harris offered a system to aid in the location and recruitment of mentors in hopes that utilization of the strategy would increase.

Summer programs such as the Satellite program affiliated with Howard University (Gore: 32), Johns Hopkins University

Center for the Advancement of Academically Talented Youths (C.T.Y.), Duke University's Talent Identification Program (T.I.P.) (Boslough: 29), and the eleven summer centers in Maryland, each geared to specific types of giftedness (Lemov: 231), have been enthusiastically received. Equally successful are the specialized high schools. Houston, Texas High School for the Performing and Visual Arts (Churchwell: 23), the Bronx High School of Science, Boston Latin, and North Carolina School of the Arts (Boslough: 30) are just several examples.

The current interest in the gifted and the increasing number of special programs are encouraging, but the ultimate success of gifted education rests with the teacher. The administrative framework of a gifted program is meaningless if the teacher harbors prejudices, insecurities, and/or clings to ineffective, traditional methods. Torrance offered suggestions for creative ways to teach and illustrated the difference this creativity can make (see also Appendix C). Based upon a study by Carl Rogers, Lyon revealed three traits present in successful therapists which also existed in successful teachers; genuineness, empathic understanding, and prizing. Prizing is the caring about the uniqueness of the individual. This appears to be the key for the gifted, caring enough about their unique needs to offer the support and programs to fulfill them.

The successful programs and strategies exist. Research, expert opinion, and experience have verified their success. Lemov (229) quoted a former discipline problem and underachiever, "My gifted class is on a Friday and that's one day of school I'd

never miss." Thi Thumasathit who attended Duke's T.I.P. stated, "After 14 weeks, I feel that my time has come, and I have to make room for others. I won't be there physically but my memories, words, actions, and friends will be" (34). With the proven means available, prizing becomes the significant factor.

In spite of the dismal reports, A Place Called School, A Nation at Risk and the Richardson Study, there are positive features to be gleaned. The publication of the Marland report in 1972 was equally distressing but as a result the gifted being served climbed from 4% to 35% in the ensuing ten years (Lyon: 18). Once again the consciousness of the public has been raised. Awareness is an initial step in meeting the needs of the gifted. Given the appropriate environmental supports, some gifted will still struggle and fail just as some now succeed in spite of negative situations. However, each child has the right to be appreciated as an individual and "receive an education commensurate with his or her potential" (Sawyer: 36).

> For every gifted child who is not allowed to reach his or her potential, there is a lost opportunity. That child might have eventually composed a concerto, found a cure for a hitherto terminal disease, or developed a formula for world peace. Wasting the potential of a gifted mind is reckless for a society in desperate need of creativity and inventiveness. (Lyon: 20).

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APPENDIX A

UNDERLYING CAUSES OF PROBLEMS OF GIFTED CHILDREN

1. A desire to be accepted by their peers in school and non-school activities.

2. Their classmates' resentment of the ease with which they work and solve academic problems and the approval they receive from teachers and other adults because of their superior accomplishments.

3. A tendency on the part of teachers to recognize and reward academic achievement in terms of results rather than processes and/or creativity.

4. The failure of teachers to recognize the value of skill in manipulative activities and of social and physical development of gifted pupils.

5. The failure of teachers to recognize the inherent values to be found in the fine arts—music, art, dramatics, creative writing, the dance—and in other areas of the curriculum that are less academic in nature than reading, writing, and arithmetic.

6. The failure of the school to provide enough challenging experiences. All too often gifted children are not free to use the overabundance of free time, which they cannot manage without help.

7. The tendency of parents, friends and siblings to minimize their accomplishments and dreams.

8. A failure to develop sound work habits or to develop the ability to maintain sustained effort. This may be due to the fact that they have seldom had to exert themselves to complete assignments, but it could be due to an inadequate introduction to fundamental processes and workstudy patterns at lower grade levels.

9. A dislike for essential drill and repetition because it interferes with other, more satisfying interests.

10. A feeling of frustration because
    a) goals have been set that are still beyond their advanced stage of development,
    b) they still lack the breadth of experience essential for the mastery or understanding of abstractions,
    c) they fail to see how they can use special abilities or talents to meet obligations to home, school and society.

11. A desire to become perfect before essential skills or talents are developed. Handwriting skill, control of a paintbrush and so forth may have to be deferred until muscular coordination is perfected.

12. The frustrations of and even jealousies of teachers who cannot compete with pupils who have developed a superior skill or more understanding than the teachers have. Some of these teachers deliberately or unintentionally discourage them with ridicule, sarcasm or by ignoring them.

13. A resistance to school and teachers because of repeated exposure to meaningless recitations, lectures and busy-work assignments that gave them no feeling of accomplishment.

14. Their curiosity or their overexuberance, which has sometimes made them so aggressive that other pupils ridicule them or torment them because they always have the answer first and never seem to make a mistake.

15. Their tendency to overlook their own limitations or to be overobsessed with their own importance or capacity. They may be unable to evaluate the results or their efforts correctly so that they will become truly self-directive or self-appraising.

16. Their lack of patience with slower-learning pupils who have spent long and painful hours in achieving what they, the gifted pupils, have mastered in a short span of time.

17. Their development of a strong dislike for their own powers because these talents set them apart from their peermates.

18. Their gaining either too much or too little recognition for their efforts.

19. Their sometimes failing to develop essential skills that will give them a balance. A one-sided development may earn them the title of being just another "character."

20. Their occasionally expending such an excessive amount of time and effort pursuing hobbies that they neglect to fulfill obligations to others as well as to themselves.

21. The economic, social and physical pressures that may force them to pursue lines of endeavor other than those wherein their special interests and talents lie.

22. Leadership qualities never being recognized because these pupils are never placed in situations where they can demonstrate their ability to assume responsibility and guide or direct others.

23. The lack of access to resource materials in school or at home that would lead to the stimulation of interests or a challenge to explore further into selected fields of study—that is, supplementary readers, current magazines, pamphlets, up-to-date encyclopedias, records, films, film strips and library books.

24. Failure to achieve close to desired accomplishment levels may be attributed to the influence of a broken home. Studies show more fatherless families exist among low achievers than among high achievers.

25. Low achievement may originate in physical factors ranging from a problem of laterality or handedness to an extreme physical defect. In some cases a lack of physical strength has lowered a bright pupil's enduring powers. The individual may have had high educational goals but required more sleep and rest than comparable peermates who could devote endless hours to the mastery of an assignment or project.

26. The lack of flexibility in the curriculum, the insistence on rigid grade standards and the continuation of a practice of holding talented boys and girls back to prevent any encroachment upon the next teacher's domain. This may be responsible for low achievement in areas of the curriculum other than reading, as a result of the limited growth or stretching of the mind in areas like arithmetic, science or social studies unless there is an opportunity to move into newer and higher concepts under the direction of a teacher.

27. The lack of sufficient imagination on the part of teachers to cope with gifted children's needs and interests and frequent teacher failure to recognize the "lazy," "indifferent," "daydreamer," or "behavior-problem" child as an anxious child.

28. Failure of parents and teachers to insist on quality work or high standards. This is especially true of underachievers in need of remedial assistance.

29. Individuals may fail to achieve at desired levels because of emotional instability. This imbalance in emotional control may range from a moderate childish impulsiveness to an extreme where the individual finds it difficult to work in a class situation.

30. Intellectual curiosity is often considered as an outstanding trait of gifted children. Unfortunately, there are gifted underachievers who are totally lacking in curiosity. This is reflected in their low accomplishment even in special classes for the gifted where their learning environment is conducive to the fullest development of their talents or intellectual potential.

(Thomas and Crescimbeni: 81-84)

TABLE 1: IDENTIFIED PROBLEMS OF
GIFTED ADOLESCENTS RELATED TO BEING OUT OF STAGE

Type of Problem	Comment and Reference[1]
Boredom	1. Easily bored, frustrated by traditional instruction (Alvino, 1981). 2. Boredom (Compton, 1982). 3. Listed as problems in J.H.S. - school waste of time (Bachtold, 1978).
Multi-Talented	1. They need feedback about their gifts provided by professional. Teachers need to be taught to recognize and deal with these issues with the gifted (Sanborn, 1979). 2. Isolated interests and talents (Gifted Children's Resource Center, undated). 3. By definition of gifted as multitalented (Butler, 1978).
Perfectionism and Pressures for Success	1. Discontent with any performance short of own goals (Whitmore, 1980). 2. The underachievers refuse to compete because of feelings of inadequacy (Barrett, 1957). 3. Gifted children may be under considerable pressure to achieve (Strang, 1951).
Pressures for Success	1. Pressures for success (Schetky, 1981). 2. Unrealistic expectations of gifted (Whitmore, 1980).
Success masks students needs	1. Many gifted students do so well that this very fact desensitizes us to their needs. (Sanborn, 1979). 2. High academic achievement, social skills at early age (Whitmore, 1980).
Uneven development	1. Discrepencies between physical, emotional and intellectual maturation are common but may be even more exaggerated in the gifted (Schetky, 1981). 2. Brain reaches a plateau (Compton, 1982). 3. Dialogue between superior intelligence and maturity (Hollingworth, 1942).

[1]Comments are often paraphrased.

TABLE 2: IDENTIFIED PROBLEMS OF
GIFTED ADOLESCENTS RELATED TO BEING OUT OF PHASE

Type of Problem	Comment and Reference[1]
Alienation: Distance from/without peer groups	1. Alienation because of divergent thinking and creativity, etc. (Alvino, 1981). 2. Being different in adolescence is bad enough for normal teenagers, but more for gifted early adolescents (Compton, 1982). 3. Due to different interests, self-direction (Gifted Children Resource Center, undated). 4. Listed as Problem-disillusionment with system (Bachtold, 1978). 1. Feelings of alienation versus the wish to be accepted. (Schetky, 1981). 2. Lack of acceptance by age peers (Alvino, 1981). 3. J.H. and H.S. gifted students resemble each other not age peers. Problems arise in matching gifted with intellectual and age peers Lesringer and Martinson, 1961).
Sensitivity: To issues not-relevant to peers To interpersonal Relationships	1. Supersensitive to issues and concerns not viewed as important by age peers (Alvino, 1981). 2. Sensitivity-a mixed blessing: both an asset and a liability. It is a liability when abused by manipulating other (Schetky, 1981). 3. Hypersensitivity leading to connections and relationships often too much for normal peers (Whitmore, 1980). 4. Supersensitivity of nervous system creates intellectual giftedness by allowing the assimilation of extra amounts of sensory input. (Cruickshank, 1963) in Whitmore, 1980.
Deficit Social Skills	1. Two types of students 1) High academic achievement, socially skilled at an early age; 2) Deficient because of limited preschool peer interactions. Social isolation acute for gifted youth (Whitmore, 1980). 2. Problems with interpersonal relationships (Bachtold, 1978). 3. The higher the IQ of the gifted, the more difficult it is to become socially adjusted (Hollingworth, 1942). 4. Very high IQ child faces a more difficult

TABLE 2: IDENTIFIED PROBLEMS OF
GIFTED ADOLESCENTS RELATED TO BEING OUT OF PHASE
CONTINUED

Type of Problem	Comment and Reference[1]
	problem in social adjustment than the less precocious (Terman, et at., 1947).
Uncertainty over roles	1. Uncertainty concerning roles in society. (Alvino, 1981).
Activity level Tendency to Challenge Authority	1. Child can be physically and mentally exhausting (Schetky, 1981). 2. Tendency to challenge authority (Schetky, 1981).
Being Male	1. More adjustment difficulties for males than females (Bachtold, 1978).
Early maturing girls	1. Gifted girls who are early maturers and large may have considerable problems (Compton, 1982).

[1]Comments are often paraphrased.

TABLE 3: IDENTIFIED PROBLEMS OF
GIFTED ADOLESCENTS RELATED TO BEING OUT OF SYNC

Type of Problem	Comment and Reference
Self-Concept Problems	1. Poor self-concept (Alvino, 1981). 2. Self-image problems (Bachtold, 1978). 3. Excessive Self criticism. (Caroll, 1940).
Insecurity and Anxiety	1. Insecure and anxious because of perceived physical deficits, different interests, self-direction (Gifted Children Resource Center).
Too much, too cognitive	1. Far more attention is given to the gifted child's cognitive development than to his or her emotional needs. (Alvino, 1981). 2. Burn-out gifted tired of extra work; label of them in different category (Compton, 1982).
Severe Psychological Problems	1. Caused by accumulated environmental insensitivity (Gifted Children Resource Center, undated). 2. Maladjustment increases with age (Witty, 1940 in Whitmore, 1980).

[1] Comments are often paraphrased.

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(Manaster and Powell : 71-73)

63 WAYS OF LEARNING
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"The process is often as important as the content."

1. LECTURE - pedogogy; learning by listening to experts

   "Most common method of learning in schools and one of the least effective as measured by enduring effect."

2. READING - learning by reading books, pamphlets, magazines and other printed material

3. INQUIRY - learning by initiating own questions. Source: Richard Suchman

4. EXHIBITIONS - learning by observing exemplary products or performance (like a museum, bulletin board, or display)

5. GROUP DISCUSSION - learning by verbal interaction with other learners

6. EXPERIENCE - learning from experiential activity or performance

   "Experience is certainly one of the best teachers, particularly for kinesthetic learners."

7. DEMONSTRATION - learning by observing and analyzing an expert performance

   "Watching a demonstration results in more learning when analyzed as well as viewed."

8. CHALLENGE ACTIVITY - learning from a first-time or demanding life activity

   "One of the most enduring of all learning activities for reorganizing a learner's perception of self and extending capacity for new action."

9. TESTING AS TEACHING - learning from assessment and performance feedback

   "Not all testing results in new learning."

10. SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING - learning by designing and directing one's own learning

    "80% or 4/5 of all we learn is a result of self-initiated efforts rather than formal schooling."

    Sources: Maurice Gibbons, Malcolm Knowles, Allen Tough

11. TEACHING OTHERS - learning by teaching others or tutoring

    "One of the most effective and enduring methods. Research promises 90% retention of learning which the learner is required to teach to others."

12. COOPERATIVE GROUPS - learning by participating in groups who assist each other and compete with other groups rather than individually

    "Cooperative groups use the concept of an athletic team as applied to new learning."

    Sources: Slavin, Johnson & Johnson, Joining Together

13. MENTORING - learning from admired and competent adult models through observation and analysis

"Mentoring is more effective if the mentor is respected by the learner."

14. DRILL AND REPETITION - learning from repeated performance

15. COACHING - learning from an expert through feedback on performance and assistance to "correct-in-flight"

"Academic coaches can be as effective as athletic coaches. Research shows coaching results in about 83% retention of new learning."

16. RESEARCH - learning from individual inquiry through social interviews, library research, or laboratory pursuits as in the experimental method in science

17. QUESTION-ANSWER - learning from question-answer sessions with teachers or other learners

18. COMPUTER ASSISTED INSTRUCTION - learning from interaction with a computer

"Any teacher who could be replaced by a computer, should be."

19. SIMULATED PRACTICE - learning from performance in a safe, controlled situation like a role play or socio drama

20. DISCOVERY - learning from new ideas or experience

"The 'ah-hah' reaction so essential in new learning often results from groping and exploring as an integral act of learning."

21. SOCRATIC - learning from give and take interaction with a teacher or scholar

22. PURPOSEFUL REDUNDANCY - learning from planned and repeated activity using multiple modes or sensory activities (visual, auditory, kinesthetic)

23. SELF-EDUCATION - learning from independently planned efforts using informal sources

"Self-instruction is more engaging and enduring than other - directed learning."

24. MODELS OF EXCELLENCE - learning from observing and emulating exemplary performance

"What you do speaks so loudly I can't hear what you say. Learners can subtly model incompetence and mediocrity as well as excellence."

"Example is not the best way to influence people, it is the only way."

Albert Schweitzer

25. FAILURE - learning from analyzing your own life experience and correcting past mistakes

"Learning from failure is easier in environments that value risk taking and failure at demanding tasks."

26. PROJECT METHOD - learning from designing and executing individual or group projects as both development and demonstration of learning

27. PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION - learning from specially constructed print or audio visual materials for self-instruction

28. CLASSROOM SEATWORK - learning from supervised study like doing the "questions at the end of the chapter"

"Second most common method used in schools. This method is often used for expediency rather than efficacy of the method."

29. ADVANCED ORGANIZER MODEL - learning from planned instruction which recognizes the need for prior learning being linked and integrated with new learning. Source: David Ausabel

"Most students understand clearly what's expected of them only after they've failed to meet the expectations."

30. TRIAL AND ERROR - learning from informal experience and exploratory activities

31. TRAVEL - learning from observing and experiencing new environments

32. TELEVISION - learning from watching television

"Like teachers or books, some television programs are more educating than others."

33. PRACTICE - learning from performance

"Practice makes perfect: providing the learner doesn't repeatedly practice incompetence and mediocrity."

34. AUDIO-VISUAL - learning from listening to radio, audio tape, or through instructional film or slide tape

"Often used by teachers as a time filler when otherwise unprepared."

35. CLASSROOM MEETING METHOD - learning by including a group of learners in making decisions about the (What?) and (How?) of learning. Source: William Glasser

36. INDUCTIVE TEACHING-LEARNING METHOD - a method of learning which expands new information into categories and concepts and promotes intellectual reasoning and theory building. Source: Hilda Taba

37. DEDUCTIVE METHOD - learning from planned presentations that reduce new information to concrete conclusions and logical categories useful in higher level thinking

"The deductive method uses an if-then approach to problem solving and learning."

38. INDEPENDENT STUDY - learning from an individual effort at mastery

"Preferred by learners who consider themselves unique and distinctive or prefer working alone."

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39. PEER TUTORING - learning from planned efforts of tutoring and being tutored by peers

"Similar to the cooperative group method and one of the most effective ways of learning if participants have prerequisite tutoring skills."

40. ONE-TO-ONE TUTORIAL - individualized instruction is highly desirable but is often not practical or efficient as a method in schools

41. MENTAL REHEARSAL - learning by using mental practice as a rehearsal for life performance applying a new skill or knowledge

42. INTERNSHIP OR APPRENTICESHIP - learning from a planned work-study experience with an expert

43. GAMES - learning from games including socio-drama and role play

"A book titled New Games describes methods of making learning fun like Monopoly teaches students entrepreneurship."

44. IN-BASKET OR CASE STUDY - learning by solving problems or perplexing life dilemmas in group analysis

45. NEURO-LINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING - learning by planned efforts based on new brain research by identifying the unique mental processing style of each learner

46. GROUP DYNAMICS - learning from the interaction of a group process like brainstorming, creative problem solving, and synergy

47. VISUALIZATION - learning from an individual mental process of visualizing new levels of performance or new ways of being . . . may be similar to mental rehearsal or neuro-linguistic programming

48. REFLECTION - learning from quiet thought and reflection and contemplation which includes analysis of past experience or fantasy about the future

49. GUIDED IMAGERY - learning from planned group activities which stimulate creativity and invention through free association and cluster thinking

50. METAPHOR - learning from pictures or stories which symbolically depict new ideas and concepts. Source: Robert Samples, The Metaphoric Mind

"The most used method of Jesus Christ in biblical teachings is through parable."

51. MASTERY METHOD - learning through formal, planned process of accommodating learner uniqueness and adjusting time and method appropriately Source: Benjamin Bloom

"Promises 95% of students will attain mastery of content or a grade of A."

2. BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION - learning by using a planned stimulus-response effort of reward and punishment. Source: B. F. Skinner

"This method works better in training animals than educating human beings, but is the dominant learning theory undergirding most classrooms and schools."

3. OPERANT CONDITIONING - learning from scientific teaching methods which connect new learnings with immediate reward and punishment as in the use of "m and m's"

"A dog trained to salivate at the ringing of a bell is still a stupid dog."

Arthur Combs

4. SERENDIPTY - learning from living and by analyzing "the happy accidents of life"

"All of us have experiences of serendipty, but we don't all learn from them."

5. DREAM LEARNING - learning during sleep or through the analysis of dream activities

6. PRAYER & MEDITATION - learning from spiritual revelation, deep religious experience, and transcendental or meditative activities

"Prayer often occurs in public schools particularly during exams whether the Supreme Court considers it legal or not."

Source: Bible and book titled Snapping

57. INTUITIVE INSIGHTS & PSYCHIC EXPERIENCE - learning from any combination of extra sensory perception or sudden intuitive insight

"Occurs most often with right brain dominant learners."

58. SUPER-LEARNING - learning by using a series of new-brain research techniques which rely on subliminal sounds, sights, and pacing. Source: Lazonov and Shelia Ostrander

"Lazonov workshops promise to teach 1,000 new words of a foreign language in 30 minutes and guarantees 95% retention after 6 months."

59. PARADIGM AND MIND-SET SHIFTS - learning through organizing ideas or activities in a new context or a new model of reality or a shift in the perception of the learner

"New-brain techniques based on Leslie Hart's Proster Theory and Karl Pribram's Hologram Theory of Learning promise to revolutionalize classrooms and schools."

60. INTERVIEWING EXPERTS - learning by questioning experts about how they became expert

61. ANALYZING LIFE EXPERIENCE - learning from the analysis of a significant life experience with others

62. TRANCE STATES AND HYPNOSIS - learning from self-hypnosis or externally induced trance states

63. LABORATORY METHOD - learning from experimentation using social or science research model as well as action research and experience

"THAT'S NOT ALL FOLKS . . . . . " ADD OR INVENT YOUR OWN FAVORITE METHODS OF LEARNING:

64.

65.

66.

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APPENDIX D

TENTATIVE DESCRIPTIONS OF IDEAL GIFTED AND TALENTED EDUCATIONAL CIRCUMSTANCES

an evolving consensus developed
by the
Planning Team for Gifted/Talented
Education
Elkhart County, Indiana
March 1984

Sponsored by the Gifted and Talented Curriculum
Project of Elkhart Community Schools

ELKHART COMMUNITY SCHOOLS
Elkhart, Indiana

TENTATIVE CONSENSUS OF PLANNING TEAM

Criteria Describing an Ideal Gifted and Talented Student
Benefiting from Gifted and Talented Education

Is able to use community resources.

Has been identified as being gifted and/or talented in one or more areas and has access to special program opportunities.

Is task committed/responsible.

Uses positive leadership styles.

Is accepting of own family.

Cooperates in group efforts.

Displays healthy sense of humor.

Feels good about self/not overly self-critical.

Wants/accepts challenge activities.

Enjoys learning.

Has access to proper diet and facilities/practices that promote good physical and mental health.

Can tolerate frustration.

Is intrinsically motivated, i.e., looks for challenge and enjoys it.

Realizes he/she doesn't know everything, i.e., understands difference between intelligence and experience.

Realizes that "I will" can be more effective than IQ in achieving many tasks.

Properly equipped with supplies and materials needed to achieve.

Works with others as well as independently.

TENTATIVE CONSENSUS OF PLANNING TEAM

Criteria Describing an Ideal Classroom Environment
Developing Gifted and Talented Education

Receives inservice training for methodology to stretch students' minds.

Has self-confident teacher(s) who wants to teach G/T.

Established trust relationships between teacher/student(s), i.e., accepting/caring.

Has well educated and intelligent teacher(s) with broad perspective(s) and enthusiasm for life.

Makes flexible timing arrangements.

Provides variety of approaches, e.g., self-contained, pull-out.

Is open to variety of world issues/concerns.

Provides broad offerings in music, art, drama, academic, intellectual and leadership areas.

Provides opportunities to nurture leadership and followership roles for every G/T student.

Has administrative support for variety of teaching modes, special arrangements, flexible time use, sudden changes dictated by creativity and material needs of program.

Maintains appropriate class size.

Provides facilities appropriate for the wide variety of activities anticipated.

Assigns teachers with a great repertoire of teaching skills.

Enables students from entire area served to participate equally well.

Offers specialists who can take students as far as abilities allow.

Allows student participation by interest and ability rather than by age group.

Expands beyond a 5-day-week, regular-school-hours program.

Is able to interact with institutions of higher learning.

Permits pursuit of specialized interest.

Provides interaction with students who are not G/T at appropriate times to build social skills and community awareness.

Places great emphasis on creativity in all aspects of G/T learning.

Is attentive to special social needs of G/T students, e.g., dealing with being "different" having to meet high expectations, being expected to be gifted in all areas when may not be, learning to be self confident without being over confident.

-next page-

Criteria Describing an Ideal Classroom Environment Developing G/T Education -- continued

Balances attention to visual/performing arts, intellectual, academic, creativity and leadership.

Is as able to foster gifts of student gifted in one area as well as develop students gifted in all areas.

Maximizes integration of academic, intellectual, visual/performing arts, creativity and leadership education.

Assists students in reconciling excessive number of choices available to permit appropriate combination of exploration and focus (divergent and convergent thinking).

Maintains a "mentor climate" that provides time and opportunity for one-on-one discussions between G/T students, teachers, and resource personnel.

Provides counselor system that allows for discussion of personal concerns beyond course selection and scheduling.

G/T Curriculum Project

3-8-84
Session #3

TENTATIVE CONSENSUS OF PLANNING TEAM

Criteria Describing an Ideal Home Environment
Fostering Gifted and Talented Education

Provides supportive family environment.

Exhibits visionary view of G/T student.

Is open to ideas and new ways of looking at things.

Gives time and enthusiasm to G/T program(s) and activities.

Models excellence and/or seeks to provide same.

Is accepting, broadly open minded.

Keeps program(s) in perspective, i.e., supports balance in education.

Encourages flexibility.

Provides strong value systems.

Combines love and discipline.

Teaches sharing and cooperation.

Participates in/leads parent support groups.

Provides cultural advantages and models their appreciation as a normal part of life.

Promotes best effort and craftsmanship in pursuit of excellence.

Avoids elitist attitudes that are obstacles to good interpersonal relationships and social responsibility.

Begins instruction, modeling and climate maintenance from moment of birth.

Maintains close contact and support with educational institutions by participating in activities whenever appropriate.

G/T Curriculum Project

3-8-84
Session #3

TENTATIVE CONSENSUS OF PLANNING TEAM

Criteria Describing an Ideal Community Promoting Gifted and Talented Education

Offers cultural/aesthetic advantages.

Funds and backs special programming willingly/ably.

Provides multi-level facilities, e.g., pre-school through higher education (colleges/universities).

Provides flexible area-wide opportunities and arrangements, i.e., a "regional" cooperation system, for all five areas of giftedness.

Provides year-round/in-out of regular school day programming opportunities.

Trusts staff to assess student cognitive and affective achievement.

Accepts differences in schools and program that meet varying student abilities and needs.

Shares expertise through mentorships and use of facilities from business industry and cultural institutions.

Provides and/or solicits local money (gifts) to acquire/build facility(ies).

Provides tuition free involvement of students across districts.

Provides a community that is a model of excellence, i.e., efficient, honest government; beautiful buildings, parks and facilities; maximum use of and access to facilities; rich cultural opportunities appealing to all citizens; avoidance of sharp divisions based on wealth and status.

APPENDIX E

BULLETINS, PERIODICALS, NEWSLETTERS ABOUT THE GIFTED

Many organizations and parent advocacy groups publish newsletters, bulletins, or periodicals related to education of the gifted. Membership in some organizations usually includes a subscription to its journal, which may also be obtained separately. Other publications are independent of any organization. Listed here are several journals and other publications to which one can subscribe. Those associated with national organizations may be available in public libraries.

G/C/T (Gifted/Creative/Talented)
G/C/T Publishing Co.
Box 66654
Mobile, Alabama 36606
Highly readable, colorfull publication, with sections for parents. Articles of current interest. Some research. Book reviews.

Gifted Child Quarterly
National Association for Gifted Children
217 Gregory Drive
Hot Springs, Arkansas 71901
Professional journal, with reports of research activities in the field, ongoing programs, general discussion.

Gifted Children Newsletter
Gifted and Talented Publications, Inc.,
530 University Avenue
Palo Alto, California 94301
General discussion of current topics. Reviews of books for children, toys and games. Pull-out sections for children.

Gifted/Talented Education
P.O. Box 533
Branford, Connecticut 06405
Reports on current activities in the field. Reviews of programs in operation in many parts of the country.

JEG (Journal for the Education of the Gifted)
The Association for the Gifted (TAG/CEC)
Reston, Virginia 22091
Professional journal. Reports on research and activities in the field. Book reviews.

Journal of Creative Behavior
Bishop Hall, SUNY
1300 Elmwood Avenue
Buffalo, New York 14222
Professional journal on research and discussions of relevant topics in creativity. Book reviews.

LTI Bulletin
Ventura County Superintendent of Schools
535 East Main Street
Ventura, California 93009
Listings of current events, locations of key personnel, programs. Reports on developments on the national scene.

Parent Communication
Roeper Publications
Roeper City and Country School
Bloomfield Hills, Michigan 48013
Topics of concern to parents. Discussions of teaching methods, new activities, critical issues of general concern.

(Ehrlich : 182-183)